THE

BRITISH CRITIC,

For JANUARY, 1805.

Καιρὸν εἰ φθέγξαιο, πολλῶν
Πείρατα συντανύσαις
Ἐν βραχεῖ· μείων ἕπεται
Μῶμος ἀνθρώπων. PINDAR.

With vivid words your juſt conceptions grace,
Much truth compreſſing in a narrow ſpace;
Then many ſhall peruſe, but few complain,
And Envy frown, and critics ſnarl in vain.

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PAGE

moirs of Bonaparte's campaigns — — 577
Tranſlation of Freylinghauſen on the Chriſtian religion 589
——— of the life and moral leſſons of profeſſor Gellert 654
——— of Berthollet's eſſay on chemical ſtatics 670
——— of Schiller's Piccolominis, a drama — 684
——— of Michaux's travels in North America 698
——— of Clauſen's characteriſtic anecdotes from the hiſtory of Ruſſia — 699
Troy, topography of 349
Tuckey's, J. H. voyage to New South Wales — 334
Turton's, Dr. W. tranſlation of Linnæus's ſyſtem of nature 375

U. and V.

Vaccination, report of caſes of 87
——— experiments in ib.
Venice, the Bravo of, a romance — — 201
——— fall of the republic of 336
Village alehouſe, the — 95
Viſitations, the divine, a faſt ſermon — — 690

W.

Walker's, J. key to the pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and ſcripture proper names 456

PAGE

Walpole's, Rob. poetical tranſlations from the Latin, Greek, and Spaniſh languages 555
Ware, James, on the cataract and gutta ſerena — 303
Warner's, R. practical diſcourſes 211
Whately, T. on ſtrictures in the urethra — — 322
——— his caſes of two extraordinary polypi 685
Wheatley's, J. thoughts on a foreign ſubſidy — 446
Whitchurch's, Samuel, Hiſpaniola, a poem — 318
White's, T. E. tranſlation of Berthier's memoirs of Bonaparte's campaigns — 577
Wilſon, Dr. A. P. on febrile diſeaſes, vol. iii. and iv. 443
Woodard's, Capt. David, narrative of his ſufferings 334
Woodward's, S. M. Bettyad, a poem — — 441
Worthing, picture of 453

Y.

York's, late archbiſhop of, ſermons and life — 568
Young's, Dr. T. reply to the animadverſions of the Edinburgh reviewers — 95
Yriarte's fables — 199

Z.

Zealand, a tour in — 216
Zotti's, Romualdo, Grammaire Françoiſe et Italienne de Veneroni — — 340

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He tranſlated Froiſſart by the command of Henry, and it was printed by Pinſon, the ſcholar of Caxton, in 1525. The extreme rarity of this work, its obſolete language, and the miſrepreſentation of the names of perſons, and places, by which it is disfigured, were the principal inducements with Mr. Johnes for undertaking a new tranſlation. It ſeems hardly neceſſary to obſerve, that the work is well performed, Mr. Johnes being univerſally known as an elegant and accompliſhed ſcholar, who has dedicated the labour of many years to the ſucceſsful accompliſhment of his purpoſe. Perhaps we cannot render either the tranſlator or our readers greater juſtice, than by ſubjoining ſpecimens of the former and of the preſent work, by which means an accurate judgment may be formed of the expediency of the undertaking, and the merits which it may reaſonably claim. Lord Berners's work has this title:

"Here begynnith the firſte volum of Syr John Froiſſart: of the Cronycles of Englande, Fraunce, Spayne, Portyngale, Scotlande, Bretaine, Flaunders, and other places adjoyninge. Tranſlated oute of Frenche into oure materall Englyſhe tongue, by John Bouchier, Knyghte, Lorde Berners: at the comaundement of oure moſte Hyghe redouted Soveraygne Lorde Kynge Henrye the VIII. Kynge of Englande, Fraunce and Irelande, defendour of the faith and of the Church of Englande and alſo of Irelande, in earth the ſupreme heade."

If the above ſpecimen of the obſolete ſtyle of the old tranſlation does not prove the neceſſity of a new one, that which is ſubjoined will place it beyond all doubt.

"In this ſeaſon a frerre minor full of great clergye was in the cytie of Avignō, called frere Johan of Rocheryallad, the whiche frere Pope Innocent the vi helde in priſon in the caſtell of Baignoux for ſhewinge of many mervailes after to come, principally he ſhewed many thinges to fall on the prelates of the church for the greate ſuperfuitye and pride, that was as then uſed amonge them. And alſo he ſpake many thinges to fall of the realme of Fraunce and of the greate lordes of Chriſtendome for the oppreſſions that they dyd to the pore comō people. This frere ſayde he wolde prove al his ſayynges by the auctorie of the Apocalippys, and by other bokes of holy ſayntes, and prophettes the whiche were opened to hym by the grace of the holy ghoſte he ſhewed many thinges harde to beleve, & many thinges fell after as he ſayde. He ſayd them not as a prophette, but he ſhewed them by auctorite of aunciēt ſcriptures, and by the grace of the holy ghoſte, who gave him underſtanding to declare the auncient prophicies and to ſhew to all chriſten people the yeres and tyme whan ſuche thinges ſhulde fall, he made dyverſe bokes founded on greate ſciences and clergye, whereof one was made the yeare of our lorde M.CCC.xlvi, wherein were wrytten ſuch mervailes, that it were hard to beleve them howe be it many thinges accordynge therto fell after. And whan he was demaūded of the warres of France, he ſaid that all that had ben ſene was

not

not lyke that ſhulde be ſene after. For he ſayde that the warres in Fraunce ſhulde not be ended tyll the realme were utterly waſted and exyled in every parte. The whiche ſayenge was well ſene after, for the noble realme of Fraunce was ſore waſted and exyled: and ſpecially in yᵉ terme that the ſayde frere had ſette. The whiche was in the yeares of our lorde M.ccc.lvi, lvii, lviii, & lix. He ſayde in thoſe yeares the princes and gentylmen of the realme ſhuld not for feare ſhewe themſelfe againſt the people of lowe eſtate, aſſembled of all countreis without heed or Capitayne, and they ſhulde do as they lyſte in the realme of Fraunce, the whiche felle after as ye have herde, howe the companyons aſſembled the together, and by reaſon of theyr robbery and pyllage waxed ryche and became greate capitaynes."

It would be agreeable to us, entertaining to our readers, and no more than juſtice to Mr. Johnes, to introduce many and various ſpecimens of the ſkill and taſte which he has demonſtrated. We ſhall, however, be ſatisfied with one, both from conſideration of the limits which convenience preſcribes, and becauſe there can be little apprehenſion, but that all who are curious in the hiſtory of their country, and at all inclined to make uſeful or entertaining collections, will be ready to add this publication to their libraries.

"About this period, a Franciſcan friar, full of knowledge and underſtanding, was at Avignon: his name was John de Rochetaillade: and Pope Innocent VI kept him a priſoner in the caſtle of Baignoux, not only on account of the great prophecies he made of the times to come, chiefly and principally relating to the heads and prelates of the holy church, by reaſon of their pride, and the expenſive life they led, but alſo concerning the kingdom of France, and the great Lords of Chriſtendom for their heavy oppreſſions on the common people. The above-mentioned John was willing to prove all he ſaid from the Apocalypſe, and by the ancient books of the holy prophets, which were opened to him by the grace of the Holy Ghoſt, by which he uttered things that were difficult to be credited. Some of the predictions he had made were ſeen to come to paſs within the time; which he never could have foretold as a prophet, but by means of the Holy Scriptures, and the Holy Spirit that had given him the power of underſtanding theſe ancient prophecies, and of announcing to all Chriſtians the year and time when they were to be fulfilled. He made many books, full of much ſcience and learning; one was written in the year 1346, which contained many marvellous things, difficult of belief, but of which ſome had come to paſs already. When he was queſtioned concerning the war againſt France, he anſwered, that what they had ſeen was nothing to what was to happen; for there would be no peace until the realm of France was deſtroyed and ruined from one end to the other. This indeed happened afterwards: for that kingdom was completely ſpoiled at the time the friar had fixed, in the years 1356, 1357, 1358, and 1359: inſomuch, that none of its princes or gentlemen dared to ſhew themſelves againſt thoſe of the low eſtate, collected from all parts, and who had arrived, one after the other, without leader

or chief, whilſt the country had not any means of reſiſting them. They elected (as you have before ſeen) in different parts of the country captains from among themſelves, to whom they paid obedience. The captains when they enrolled any man in their companies, made certain agreements with them, reſpecting their ſhares of booty, and the ranſoms of priſoners: they found ſo much pillage that all the leaders became rich from the great wealth they amaſſed. King Edward was lodged at Bourg la Reine, two ſhort leagues from Paris, and his army in different parts between that and Montlhery. He ſent from thence his heralds to the Duke of Normandy in Paris, who had with him a great number of men at arms, to offer him battle: but the Duke would not accede to it. His meſſengers therefore returned without having done any thing. When the King found that his enemies would not venture out of Paris, he was mightily enraged: upon which that good Knight, Sir Walter Manny ſtepped forth and beſought his Lord, that he would permit him to make an excurſion, and aſſault as far as the barriers of Paris. The King conſented to his requeſt, and named himſelf thoſe Knights that ſhould accompany him. He made alſo many new Knights on the occaſion: among whom were, the Lord Delaware, the Lord de Silvacier, Sir Thomas Banaſter, Sir William Torceaux, Sir Thomas le Deſpenſier, Sir John Neville, Sir Richard Doſtmay, and many others. Colart d'Ambiéticourt, ſon of Sir Nicholas, would have been of the number; for the King was deſirous of it, as he was attached to his perſon, and Squire of his body; but the young man excuſed himſelf, by ſaying he could not find his helmet. Sir Walter Manny ſet out on his enterpriſe, and carried with him theſe new Knights to ſkirmiſh and make an attack on the barriers at Paris. Many hard blows were given and received, for there were within the city ſeveral valiant Knights and Squires, who would willingly have ſallied forth, if the Duke of Normandy had given his conſent. They however guarded the gates and barriers ſo well, that no damage was done to them; this ſkirmiſh laſted until twelve o'clock, and many were killed on both ſides. Sir Walter then retreated with his people to their quarters, where they remained together that day and the following night. On the morrow, the King diſlodged and took the road to Montlhery. When the camp was breaking up, ſome Engliſh and Gaſcon Knights planned the following enterpriſe. They thought, that as there were ſo many Knights in Paris, ſome of them would ſally out after them; and ſome young adventurers would endeavour to gain, by their valor, both honor and booty. They therefore placed two hundred picked men, well armed, in an old empty houſe, three leagues from Paris; the chiefs of the Gaſcon party were, the Captal de Buch, Sir Aymery de Pommiers, and the Lord Couton; of the Engliſh, the Lord Neville, the Lord Mowbray, and Sir Richard de Pontchardon. Theſe ſix Knights were the leaders of this ambuſcade. When the French, who were within Paris, perceived that the King of England was decamping, ſome young Knights collected together, and ſaid among themſelves, "It will be a good thing for us to ſally out ſecretly, and follow awhile the army of England, to ſee if we cannot gain ſomething." They were all inſtantly of this opinion; ſo that Sir Raoul de Coucy, Sir Raoul de Ravenal, the Lord de Montfault, the Lord de Helay, the Conſtable of Beauvais, le Bégue de Villaines, the

the Lord of Beauſiers, the Lord of Ulbarin, Sir Gauvaix de Valouel, Sir Flamant de Roye, Sir Azelles de Cavilly, Sir Peter de Fermoiſes, Peter de Savoiſes, and upwards of a hundred lances with them, ſallied out, well mounted, with a thorough good will to do ſomething; but they muſt find the occaſion. They took the road to Bourg la Reine, which they paſſed, and gained the open fields, when they followed the track of the cavalry and army of England, and rode beyond the ambuſcade of the Captal and his company.

" They were no ſooner paſſed, than the Engliſh and Gaſcons marched out of it after them, with their lances in their reſts, ſhouting their war-cry. The French turned about, wondering who they could be; but they ſoon found they were enemies. They immediately halted, and drew themſelves up in battle-array; and, with couched ſpears, prepared to meet the Engliſh and Gaſcons, who ſoon joined them. At this firſt onſet, many were unhorſed on each ſide, for both parties were well mounted. After this tilting-bout, they drew their ſwords; and, attacking each other more cloſely, many hard blows were given, and many gallant deeds performed. This attack laſted a conſiderable time; and was ſo well fought, that it was difficult to ſay which of the two would be conqueror. The Captal de Buch ſhone particularly, and did with his hand many deeds worthy ſo good a Knight. In the end, however, the Engliſh and Gaſcons fought ſo valiantly, the field remained to them; they were upwards of half as many again as the French.

" The Lord of Campreny ſhowed himſelf a valiant Knight on the ſide of the French, and fought gallantly under his banner, the bearer of which was ſlain: his banner was argent, a buckle gules, between ſix martlets ſable, three above and three below. The Lord of Campreny was made priſoner. The other French Knights and Squires, who ſaw the ill ſucceſs of their attempt, and that they could not recover themſelves, took the road toward Paris, fighting as they retreated, and the Engliſh purſuing them moſt eagerly. In this retreat, which continued beyond Bourg la Reine, nine Knights, as well Bannerets as others, were made priſoners; and, if the Engliſh and Gaſcons, who purſued them, had not been afraid that others might ſally out of Paris to their aſſiſtance, not one would have eſcaped being killed or taken.

" When this enterpriſe was finiſhed, they returned towards Montlhery, where the King was. They carried their priſoners with them, to whom they behaved very courteouſly, and ranſomed them handſomely that ſame evening, allowing them to return to Paris, or wherever elſe they choſe, taking readily their words for their ranſoms.

" The intention of the King of England was to enter the fertile country of Beauce, and follow the courſe of the Loire all the ſummer, to recruit and refreſh his army in Britanny until after Auguſt; and, as ſoon as the vintage was over, which from the appearances promiſed to be abundant, to return again and lay ſiege to France, that is to ſay, to Paris, for he wiſhed not to return to England, as he had ſo publicly declared, on ſetting out, his determination to conquer that kingdom, and to leave garriſons of thoſe who were carrying on

the war for him in France, in Poitou, Champagne, Ponthieu, Vimeu, Valgueſſin*, in Normandy, and throughout the whole kingdom of France, except in thoſe cities and towns which had voluntarily ſubmitted to him.

" The Duke of Normandy was at this time at Paris with his two brothers, their uncle the Duke of Orleans, and all the principal counſellors of ſtate, who, well aware of the courage of the King of England, and how he pillaged and impoveriſhed the whole realm of France, knew alſo that this ſituation could not laſt, for the rents, both of the nobles and clergy, were generally unpaid. At this period, a very wiſe and valiant man was Chancellor of France, whoſe name was William † de Montague, Biſhop of Therouenne: by his advice the kingdom was governed: every part of it profited from his good and loyal counſel. Attached to him were two clerks of great prudence; one was the Abbot of Clugny, the other Friar Symon de Langres, Principal of the Predicant Monks, and Doctor in Divinity. Theſe two clerks juſt named, at the requeſt and command of the Duke of Normandy and his brothers, the Duke of Orleans their uncle, and of the whole of the great council, ſet out from Paris, with certain articles of peace. Sir Hugh de Geneve, Lord of Autun, was alſo their companion. They went to the King of England, who was overrunning Beauce, near to Gallardon‡.

" Theſe two prelates and the Knight had a parley with the King of England, when they began to open a treaty of peace with him and his allies. To this treaty the Duke of Lancaſter, the Prince of Wales, the Earl of March§, and many other Barons, were ſummoned. However, this treaty was not concluded, though it was diſcuſſed for a long time. The King of England kept advancing into the country, ſeeking for thoſe parts where was the greateſt abundance. The commiſſioners, like wiſe men, never quitted the King, nor ſuffered their propoſals to drop; for they ſaw the kingdom in ſuch a miſerable ſituation, that the greateſt danger was to be apprehended if they ſhould ſuffer another ſummer to paſs without peace.

" On the other hand, the King of England inſiſted on ſuch conditions as would have been ſo very grievous and prejudicial to France, that the commiſſioners, in honour, could not aſſent to them; ſo that their treaties and conferences laſted ſeventeen days, the two prelates, and the Lord of Autun, conſtantly following the King of England: this laſt was much liſtened to at the court of the King. They ſent every day, or every other day, their treaties and minutes to the Duke

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" * Moſt probably Vexin. Vexin Normand is bounded on one ſide by the Seine.

" † The Preſident Henault calls him Gille Ayeelin de Montagu, Cardinal and Biſhop of Thérouenne, vol. i. 4to. p. 263.

" ‡ Gallardon, a town in Beauce, dioceſe and election of Chartres.

" § This is a miſtake; for the Earl of March was killed a month prior to this treaty, the 26th of February, at Rouvray, in Burgundy. *Barnes.*"

of

of Normandy and his brothers at Paris, that they might ſee what ſtate they were in, and have anſwers thereto; as well as to know in what manner they were to act. All theſe papers were attentively examined, and conſidered privately, in the apartments of the Duke of Normandy; and then the full intentions of the Duke were written down, with the opinions of his council to theſe commiſſioners; by which means, nothing paſſed on either ſide without being fully ſpecified, and examined moſt cautiouſly. Theſe aforeſaid Frenchmen were in the King's apartments, or in his lodgings, as it happened, in the different places he halted at, as well on his march towards Chartres as otherwiſe; and they made great offers to bring the war to a concluſion; but the King was very hard to treat with; for his intention was to be, in fact, King of France, although he had never been ſo; to die with that rank; and alſo to put Brittany, Blois, and Touraine in the ſame ſituation as thoſe other provinces where he had garriſons. If his couſin, the Duke of Lancaſter, whom he much loved and confided in, had not perſuaded him to give up ſuch ideas, and adviſed him to liſten to the offers of peace, he never would have come to any terms. He very wiſely remonſtrated with him, and ſaid, "My Lord, this war which you are carrying on in the kingdom of France is wonderful to all men, and not ſo favourable to you. Your people are the only real gainers by it, for you are waſting your time. Conſidering every thing, if you perſiſt in continuing the war, it may laſt you your life; and it appears to me doubtful, if you will ever ſucceed to the extent of your wiſhes. I would recommend, therefore, whilſt you have the power of cloſing it honourably, to accept the propoſals which have been offered to you; for, my Lord, we may loſe more in one day than we have gained in twenty years."

"Theſe prudent and ſenſible words, which the Duke of Lancaſter uttered loyally, and with the beſt intentions, to adviſe the King of England to his good, converted the King to his opinion, through the grace of the Holy Spirit, who alſo worked to the ſame effect; for an accident befel him, and all his army, who were then before Chartres, that much humbled him, and bent his courage.

"During the time that the French commiſſioners were paſſing backwards and forwards from the King to his council, and unable to obtain any favourable anſwer to their offers, there happened ſuch a ſtorm, and violent tempeſt of thunder and hail, which fell on the Engliſh army, that it ſeemed as if the world was come to an end. The hail-ſtones were ſo large as to kill men and beaſts, and the boldeſt were frightened.

"The King turned himſelf towards the church of our Lady at Chartres, and religiouſly vowed to the Virgin, as he has ſince confeſſed, that he would accept of terms of peace. He was at this time lodged in a ſmall village, near Chartres, called Bretigny; and there were then committed to writing, certain rules and ordinances for peace, upon which the following articles were drawn out. To follow up this, and more completely to treat of it, the counſellors and lawyers of the King of England drew up a paper, called the Charter of Peace, with great deliberation and much prudence, the tenor of which was as follows."

This

This firſt volume is ornamented with various engravings, which are faithfully copied from the beautiful manuſcripts of Froiſſart in the Britiſh Muſeum. Mr. Johnes has occaſionally made uſe of theſe literary treaſures; but he alſo poſſeſſes many valuable manuſcripts of his own. There is alſo a curious manuſcript at Breſlau, which Mr. Johnes has employed a perſon to collate. The variations and additions, if of importance, will be added to the ſucceeding volume. This book was printed under Mr. Johnes's immediate inſpection, at a private preſs of his own, and at a remote part of the kingdom. There is, however, on this ſcore, but little occaſion or opportunity for complaint. We are happy to learn that the work is in continuation, with our cordial approbation thus far, and with our earneſt wiſhes for its final ſucceſs.

ART. II. *The Life and Poſthumous Writings of William Cowper, Eſq. with an Introductory Letter to the Right Honourable Earl Cowper. By William Hayley, Eſq Vol. III.* 4to. 447 pp. 1l. 1s. Johnſon. 1804.

THOUGH this is marked as the third volume of Cowper's Life, it contains no biography at all; but ſimply an additional collection of Letters. It contains indeed what is much better than biography, except ſuch as flows from the pen of a Johnſon, a very intereſting and characteriſtic ſucceſſion of Letters; ſo intereſting indeed, that few readers of taſte will have finiſhed them, without regretting the termination of a ſpecies of entertainment, no leſs rare than exquiſite. In this reſpect, the preſent volume far exceeds the two former, in which were ſeveral Letters of little intereſt, and ſome that a ſound judgment muſt have wiſhed omitted*.

That he might not be quite excluded from the ſociety of a friend with whom he is ſo proud to appear, Mr. Hayley has prefixed 31 pages, of what he calls "Deſultory Remarks, on the Letters of eminent Perſons, particularly thoſe of Pope and Cowper". The remarks are indeed deſultory, for the writer ſeems to have an inability to reſtrain himſelf to their proper ſubject. From Anne Boleyn he makes a rapid tranſition to Mad. de Sevigné, who naturally conducting him

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* See our twenty-ſecond volume, p. 56, in our review of the preceding volumes.

to Lady M. W. Montagu, he digreſſes again and again upon her quarrel with Pope. Thrice does he call himſelf to attend to the Letters of that poet, and as often does he find himſelf unable to keep his attention to the ſubject. Even the third time, he is not ſucceſsful, but is gone immediately to Lord Bacon, and various other perſonages. On a ſudden, by the aid of a quotation from Bolingbroke, we are carried back to all the ancient writers of Letters, but not to meet with any very new or valuable obſervations. The ineſtimable Letters of Cicero, the moſt curious illuſtrations of hiſtory remaining in the world, are paſt by with much too ſlight a notice. If Mr. H. meant either to inſtruct his readers, or to gain much credit to himſelf, he ſhould have produced ſomething more elaborate than theſe too Deſultory Remarks; among which, however, there are ſome worthy of notice, particularly the compariſon, which ought to have formed the concluſion, between the Letters of Gellert and thoſe of Cowper. The account of Biſhop Hall's Letters ſhould have been introduced much earlier. The true account of the Remarks is, that they contain much that does not belong to the ſubject, want much that does belong to it, and give nothing in its proper place.

We proceed, with much increaſe of ſatisfaction, to Cowper himſelf, whoſe Letters, in the preſent ſeries, begin with the year 1778. They are chiefly addreſſed to the Rev. William Unwin or the Rev. John Newton, and contain therefore the effuſions of a genuine friendſhip. Having read them throughout with great delight, we feel that our difficulty will be to reſtrain ourſelves within any moderate bounds of citation, ſo much do they contain that either characterizes the man, or poſſeſſes on other accounts intrinſic value. We are caught in the very fourth Letter, by his remarks on Johnſon's life of Milton, which are not only full of truth, but full of genuine taſte and poetic feeling; and may ſerve beſides as a leſſon to thoſe multitudes, who have not learned, what natural amiableneſs alone ſufficiently taught Cowper, how to object to a particular paſſage in the writings of an author, without abuſing the man.

"I have been well entertained with Johnſon's Biography, for which I thank you: with one exception, and that a ſwinging one, I think he has acquitted himſelf with his uſual good ſenſe and ſufficiency. His treatment of Milton is unmerciful to the laſt degree. He has belaboured that great poet's character with the moſt induſtrious cruelty. As a man, he has hardly left him the ſhadow of one good quality. Churliſhneſs in his private life, and a rancorous hatred of every thing royal in his public, are the two colours with which he has ſmeared all the canvas. If he had any virtues, they are not to be found in the Doctor's picture of him, and it is well for Milton, that ſome fourneſs

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in his temper is the only vice with which his memory has been charged; it is evident enough that if his biographer could have diſcovered more, he would not have ſpared him. As a poet, he has treated him with ſeverity enough, and has plucked one or two of the moſt beautiful feathers out of his Muſe's wing, and trampled them under his great foot. He has paſſed ſentence of condemnation upon Lycidas, and has taken occaſion from that charming poem, to expoſe to ridicule (what is indeed ridiculous enough) the childiſh prattlement of paſtoral compoſitions, as if Lycidas was the prototype and pattern of them all. The livelineſs of the deſcription, the ſweetneſs of the numbers, the claſſical ſpirit of antiquity that prevails in it, go for nothing. I am convinced by the way, that he has no ear for poetical numbers, or that it was ſtopped by prejudice againſt the harmony of Milton's; was there ever any thing ſo delightful as the muſic of the Paradiſe Loſt? It is like that of a fine organ; has the fulleſt and the deepeſt tones of majeſty, with all the ſoftneſs and elegance of the Dorian flute. Variety without end and never equalled, unleſs perhaps by Virgil. Yet the Doctor has little or nothing to ſay upon this copious theme, but talks ſomething about the unfitneſs of the Engliſh language for blank-verſe, and how apt it is, in the mouth of ſome readers, to degenerate into declamation." P. 6.

How can we paſs by, in a different ſtyle, the following beautiful ſpecimen of the author's poetical ingenuity united with true modeſty?

"When I wrote laſt I was a little inclined to ſend you a copy of Verſes, entitled the Modern Patriot, but was not quite pleaſed with a line or two which I found it difficult to mend, therefore did not. At night I read Mr. Burke's ſpeech, in the news-paper, and was ſo well pleaſed with his propoſals for a reformation, and with the temper in which he made them, that I began to think better of his cauſe, and burnt my Verſes. Such is the lot of the man who writes upon the ſubject of the day; the aſpect of affairs changes in an hour or two, and his opinion with it; what was juſt, and well-deſerved ſatire in the morning, in the evening becomes a libel; the author commences his own judge, and while he condemns, with unrelenting ſeverity, what he ſo lately approved, is ſorry to find that he has laid his leaf-gold upon touchwood, which crumbled away under his fingers. Alas! What can I do with my wit? I have not enough to do great things with, and theſe little things are ſo fugitive, that while a man catches at the ſubject, he is only filling his hand with ſmoke. I muſt do with it as I do with my linnet: I keep him for the moſt part in a cage, but now and then ſet open the door that he may whiſk about the room a little, and then ſhut him up again. My whiſking wit has produced the following, the ſubject of which is more important than the manner in which I have treated it ſeems to imply, but a fable may ſpeak truth, and all truth is ſterling; I only premiſe that in a philoſophical tract in the Regiſter, I found it aſſerted that the glow-worm is the nightingale's proper food*." P. 10.

"* This Letter contained the beautiful Fable of the Nightingale and the Glow-worm."

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In the ſpring of 1780, we find Cowper amuſing himſelf with the practice of drawing landſcapes, which gives occaſion to a confeſſion very characteriſtic of a man of genius. But to prevent a dangerous imitation (ſince there is nothing people are ſo apt to affect for their vanity's ſake as genius) let us obſerve that he paints one of the foibles of genius, and that there is nothing ſo uſeful as thoſe commanding neceſſities of life, which compel ſuch a man to purſue ſome object, far beyond this point of novelty and pleaſure.

" My ſcribbling humour has of late been entirely abſorbed in the paſſion for landſcape drawing. It is a moſt amuſing art, and, like every other art, requires much practice and attention.

" Nil ſine multo
Vita, labore, dedit mortalibus.

Excellence is providentially placed beyond the reach of indolence, that ſucceſs may be the reward of induſtry, and that idleneſs may be puniſhed with obſcurity and diſgrace. So long as I am pleaſed with an employment, I am capable of unwearied application, becauſe my feelings are all of the intenſe kind; I never received a *little* pleaſure from any thing in my life; if I am delighted, it is in the extreme. The unhappy conſequences of this temperature is, that my attachment to any occupation, ſeldom out-lives the novelty of it. That nerve of my imagination, that feels the touch of any particular amuſement, twangs under the energy of the preſſure with ſo much vehemence, that it ſoon becomes ſenſible of wearineſs, and fatigue. Hence I draw an unfavourable prognoſtic, and expect that I ſhall ſhortly be conſtrained to look out for ſomething elſe. Then perhaps, I may ſtring the harp again, and be able to comply with your demand." P. 20.

We have begun as we foreſaw we ſhould, and find our citations ſtanding very cloſe to each other in the early part of the book. No matter;—we muſt go on as far as our ſpace will permit, and then ſend our readers to the volume itſelf, for a treat far beyond what we can give them. Some things are well ſaid upon ſlander and flattery, in the eighteenth Letter, particularly this, " He that ſlanders me paints me blacker* than I am, and he that flatters me, whiter. They both daub me; and when I look in the glaſs of my conſcience, I ſee myſelf diſguiſed

* On a ſimilar thought, but probably without recollection of this, we have lately ſeen the following Epigram, againſt anſwering a ſcurrilous ſcribbler.

If Niger lies, as Niger always will,
E'en let him, unrefuted, lie his fill.
Who draws me black diſcredits not my phiz,
But ſhows me what his own heart's colour is.

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by both." It is a little remarkable, that Mr. Unwin in writing, Cowper in criticizing, and Mr. Hayley in printing, the ſhort Epitaph which appears in p. 39, ſhould all forget that the ſecond line out of the four was the undoubted property of Biſhop Lowth, from whom alſo the opening of it is borrowed. Yet Cowper ſays, very properly, that where a work is ſhort, every thing ſhould be finiſhed and exact. The Epitaph is this;

" *Care vale!* ſed non æternum, care, valeto!
Namque iterum tecum, ſim modo dignus, ero.
Tum nihil amplexus poterit divellere noſtros,
Nec tu marceſces, nec lacrymabor ero."

Lowth's beautiful Epitaph on his daughter begins, as is well known, " *Cara vale!*" the *amplexus* are alſo in Lowth; but his fourth line is,

Quando iterum tecum, ſim modo dignus, ero.

So much borrowing, in ſo ſhort a compoſition, is ſurely not allowable. Add to this, that the laſt line is feeble and bald in the expreſſion; beſides being, as Cowper objects, too obvious in the thought: but obſerve and wonder, reader, what elegance is given to it in Cowper's Engliſh.

" Farewell, " but not for ever", Hope replies,
" Trace but his ſteps, and meet him in the ſkies!"
There nothing ſhall renew our parting pain,
Thou ſhalt not wither, nor I weep again."

Nor ſhould any writers of poetry forget the following precept in the ſame Letter, which, coming from a true poet, and an undoubted genius, will perhaps have more weight than if uttered by a mere critic.

" To touch and retouch", ſays Cowper, " though ſome writers boaſt of negligence, and others would be aſhamed to ſhow their foul copies, is the ſecret of almoſt all good writing, eſpecially in verſe. *I am never weary of it myſelf;* and, if you would take as much pains as I do, you would have no need to aſk for my corrections." P. 39.

We do not proceed three pages further, before we are ſtopped by Cowper's excellent Latin tranſlation of Dryden's famous Epigram on Milton, which, with his previous obſervations, we here inſert.

" I have often wondered, that Dryden's illuſtrious epigram on Milton, in my mind the ſecond beſt that ever was made; has never been tranſlated into Latin, for the admiration of the learned in other countries. I have at laſt preſumed to venture upon the taſk myſelf. The great cloſeneſs of the original, which is equal in that reſpect, to the moſt compact Latin I ever ſaw, made it extremely difficult.

" Tres

" Tres tria, ſed longè diſtantia ſæcula, vates
Oſtentant tribus è gentibus eximios.
Græcia ſublimem, cum majeſtate diſertum
Roma tulit, felix Anglia utrique parem.
Partubus ex binis Natura exhauſta, coacta eſt,
Tertius ut fieret, conſociare duos." P. 42.

A few judicious alterations, ſuch as we have ſeen from a very claſſical pen, would make this Epigram all that could be wiſhed.

What can be more pleaſant than the following paſſage, on writing a Letter without a ſubject?

" You like to hear from me—This is a very good reaſon why I ſhould write—But I have nothing to ſay—This ſeems equally a good reaſon why I ſhould not—Yet if you had alighted from your horſe at our door this morning, and at this preſent writing, being five o'clock in the afternoon, had found occaſion to ſay to me—" Mr. Cowper, you have not ſpoke ſince I came in, have you reſolved never to ſpeak again?" It would be but a poor reply, if in anſwer to the ſummons, I ſhould plead inability as my beſt and only excuſe. And this, by the way, ſuggeſts to me a ſeaſonable piece of inſtruction, and reminds me of what I am very apt to forget, when I have any epiſtolary buſineſs in hand; that a Letter may be written upon any thing or nothing, juſt as that any thing or nothing happens to occur. A man that has a journey before him twenty miles in length, which he is to perform on foot, will not heſitate and doubt whether he ſhall ſet out or not, becauſe he does not readily conceive how he ſhall ever reach the end of it; for he knows, that by the ſimple operation of moving one foot forward firſt, and then the other, he ſhall be ſure to accompliſh it. So it is in the preſent caſe, and ſo it is in every ſimilar caſe. A Letter is written as a converſation is maintained, or a journey performed, not by preconcerted or premeditated means, a new contrivance, or an invention never heard of before, but merely by maintaining a progreſs, and reſolving, as a poſtillion does, having once ſet out, never to ſtop 'till we reach the appointed end. If a man may talk without thinking, why may he not write upon the ſame terms? A grave gentleman of the laſt century, a tie wig, ſquare-toe, Steinkirk figure, would ſay—" My good Sir, a man has no right to do either." But it is to be hoped, that the preſent century has nothing to do with the mouldy opinions of the laſt; and ſo good Sir Launcelot, or Sir Paul, or whatever be your name, ſtep into your picture frame again, and look as if you thought for another century, and leave us moderns, in the mean time, to think when we can, and to write whether we can or not, elſe we might as well be dead as you are." P. 46.

The character of Vincent Bourne, whoſe Latin poems every ſcholar has read with delight, but whoſe perſon only a few can now remember, will probably be acceptable to many readers. We leave Cowper to anſwer for the boldneſs of preferring him to Tibullus and Propertius.

" I am much obliged to you for your offer to ſupport me in a tranſlation of Bourne. It is but ſeldom, however, and never except

ſo

for my amuſement, that I tranſlate; becauſe I find it diſagreeable to work by another man's pattern; I ſhould at leaſt be ſure to find it ſo in a buſineſs of any length. Again, *that* is epigrammatic and witty in Latin, which would be perfectly inſipid in Engliſh, and a tranſlator of Bourne would frequently find himſelf obliged to ſupply what is called the turn, which is in fact the moſt difficult, and the moſt expenſive part of the whole compoſition, and could not perhaps, in many inſtances, be done with any tolerable ſucceſs. If a Latin poem is neat, elegant, and muſical, it is enough—but Engliſh readers are not ſo eaſily ſatisfied. To quote myſelf, you will find, in comparing the jack daw with the original, that I was obliged to ſharpen a point, which, though ſmart enough in the Latin, would, in Engliſh, have appeared as plain and as blunt as the tag of a lace. I love the memory of Vinny Bourne. I think him a better Latin poet than Tibullus, Propertius, Auſonius, or any of the writers in *his* way, except Ovid, and not at all inferior to *him*. I love him too with a love of partiality, becauſe he was uſher of the fifth form at Weſtminſter when I paſſed through it. He was ſo good natured, and ſo indolent, that I loſt more than I got by him; for he made me as idle as himſelf. He was ſuch a ſloven, as if he had truſted to his genius as a cloak for every thing that could diſguſt you in his perſon; and indeed in his writings he has almoſt made amends for all. His humour is entirely original—he can ſpeak of a magpie or a cat, in terms ſo exquiſitely appropriated to the character he draws, that one would ſuppoſe him animated by the ſpirit of the creature he deſcribes. And with all his drollery, there is a mixture of rational, and even religious reflection, at times, and always an air of pleaſantry, good-nature, and humanity, that makes him, in my mind, one of the moſt amiable writers in the world. It is not common to meet with an author who can make you ſmile, and yet at nobody's expence; who is always entertaining, and yet always harmleſs; and who, though always elegant and claſſical, to a degree not always found in the claſſics themſelves, charms more by the ſimplicity and playfulneſs of his ideas, than by the neatneſs and purity of his verſe; yet ſuch was poor Vinny. I remember ſeeing the Duke of Richmond ſet fire to his greaſy locks, and box his ears to put it out again." P. 75.

We begin to think that we have now introduced as much, by way of ſpecimen, as in propriety we ought, excepting one of poetry, which we cannot omit. It is taken from that beautiful Fragment of a Poem on a venerable Oak; which will lead every reader of taſte to lament very heartily, that it was left only as a Fragment, and not worked up according to the complete conception of the poet's mind, who had evidently prepared his plan for a long compoſition. We take our tranſcript near the beginning, where the poet addreſſes the tree.

" Thou waſt a bauble once; a cup and ball,
Which babes might play with; and the thieviſh jay
Seeking her food, with eaſe might have purloin'd
The auburn nut that held thee, ſwallowing down
Thy yet cloſe-folded latitude of boughs,

And

And all thy embryo vaſtneſs, at a gulp.
But fate thy growth decreed: autumnal rains,
Beneath thy parent-tree, mellow'd the ſoil
Deſign'd thy cradle, and a ſkipping deer,
With pointed hoof dibbling the glebe, prepar'd
The ſoft receptacle, in which ſecure
Thy rudiments ſhould ſleep the winter through.

" So fancy dreams—diſprove it if ye can
Ye reas'ners broad awake, whoſe buſy ſearch
Of argument, employ'd too oft amiſs,
Sifts half the pleaſures of ſhort life away!

" Thou fell'ſt mature, and in the loamy clod,
Swelling with vegetative force inſtinct,
Didſt burſt thine egg, as their's the fabled Twins,
Now ſtars; two lobes protruding pair'd exact:
A leaf ſucceeded, and another leaf,
And all the elements thy puny growth
Foſt'ring propitious, thou becam'ſt a twig.

" Who liv'd when thou waſt ſuch? Oh! couldſt thou ſpeak,
As in Dodona once thy kindred trees
Oracular, I would not curious aſk,
The future, beſt unknown, but at thy mouth
Inquiſitive, the leſs ambiguous paſt!

" By thee I might correct, erroneous oft,
The clock of hiſtory, facts and events
Timing more punctual, unrecorded facts
Recov'ring, and miſtated ſetting right—
Deſp'rate attempt till trees ſhall ſpeak again!

" Time made thee what thou waſt—King of the woods!
And time hath made thee what thou art—a cave
For owls to rooſt in! Once thy ſpreading boughs
O'erhung the champaign, and the numerous flock,
That grac'd it ſtood beneath that ample cope
Uncrouded, yet ſafe ſhelter'd from the ſtorm.
No flock frequents thee now; thou haſt out-liv'd
Thy popularity, and art become
(Unleſs verſe reſcue thee awhile) a thing
Forgotten, as the foliage of thy youth!

" While thus through all the ſtages thou haſt puſh'd
Of treeſhip—firſt a ſeedling, hid in graſs;
Then twig; then ſapling; and, as century roll'd
Slow after century, a giant-bulk
Of girth enormous, with moſs-cuſhion'd root
Upheav'd above the ſoil, and ſides imboſs'd
With prominent wens globoſe—till at the laſt,
The rottenneſs, which time is charg'd to inflict
On other mighty ones, found alſo thee." P. 409.

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The richneſs of expreſſion, the melody of verſe, and the juſtneſs of thought in this paſſage, are ſuch as will never be rivalled without a genius, and a care alſo, equal to thoſe of Cowper. The many obſervations of Cowper, upon different authors, will be cited again and again, in various publications, as they well deſerve; and will remain, as in general they ought to do, permanent directions to public taſte. It ſhould have been obſerved by the editor, that the beautiful verſes of Jortin, tranſlated by Cowper in p. 225, are themſelves almoſt tranſlated from the famous paſſage in the firſt Idyllium of Moſchus, beginning

αἰ, αἰ, ταὶ μαλάχαι μὲν ἐπὰν κατὰ κᾶπον ὀλωΐαι,

though with ſome enlargement, as the original paſſage contains only ſix lines.

This volume appears to have been printed in the country; but as, for that very reaſon, it was immediately under the inſpection of the editor, it ought to have been much more free than it is from very groſs blunders. As to its contents, we have not any ſcruple in pronouncing, that we do not any where know of ſo much inſtruction and high gratification compriſed within an equal number of pages. It clearly places Cowper, where he was not before, at the head of Engliſh letter-writers.

ART. III. *The Hiſtory of the Reign of George III. By Robert Biſſet, LL. D.*

(Concluded from vol. xxiv. *p.* 556.*)*

THE courſe of his narrative has now brought the author to the adminiſtration of Mr. Pitt, or rather to the firſt parliament called after the eſtabliſhment of that miniſter. With the opening of that parliament the fourth volume begins; and here the conteſt, which Mr. Fox maintained for Weſtminſter, and the exertions of a diſtinguiſhed lady in his favour, are minutely deſcribed; rather too minutely, we think, for the gravity and dignity of hiſtory. The ſituation of public affairs, at this juncture, and the meaſures adopted by the miniſter for retrieving the finances, are forcibly, and, for the moſt part*,

* We ſay for the moſt part, having obſerved an overſight in ſtating the contraband trade in tea to have been more than double the legal; a ſtatement which agrees not with the quantities of each before ſet forth.

accu-

accurately ſtated. The ſecond introduction of Mr. Pitt's India Bill is alſo here noticed; and the diſtinction between that plan and the ſyſtem of Mr. Fox clearly explained. The author turns next to the affairs of the continent, deſcribing the character and views of the Emperor Joſeph, the ſeizure of the Crimea, and the other meaſures of the Empreſs of Ruſſia. He then adverts to the great improvement in the ſituation and commerce of Britain, and relates ſeveral occurrences at home; ſome of which (ſuch as the aſcent of Lunardi in a balloon) were, in our opinion, too trivial, in a national point of view, to require ſuch particular and elaborate deſcriptions.

In the ſucceeding chapter (xxxiv.) a great variety of matter occupies the writer's attention. It opens with the meeting of parliament, and proceeds to the conſideration of the Weſtminſter ſcrutiny, and the final cloſe of that proceeding; ſtates a debate relative to the debts of the Nabob of Arcot; the failure of Mr. Pitt's project for a parliamentary reform, and all the proceedings on his propoſitions for ſettling the trade with Ireland. The author then adverts to the affairs of Europe, relating the ill ſucceſs of the Emperor Joſeph's deſigns upon Bavaria, and of his attempt to open the Scheldt; and deſcribing the internal ſtate of France, and ſome of the circumſtances which led to the Revolution in that kingdom. Returning to the tranſactions at home, he paints the flouriſhing ſtate of trade, and the confidence repoſed by the mercantile and monied intereſt in Mr. Pitt; a confidence which has never ſince deſerted him. At the cloſe of this chapter, more notice is, in our opinion, taken of the ſatirical poems publiſhed at that period, by certain wits in oppoſition, than the nature of the caſe required; ſince, humourous and ingenious as ſome of them were, they certainly had no influence whatever on political events. The miniſter who encountered with ſucceſs the powerful leaders and formidable battalions of the Oppoſition, needed not to beſtow a thought on the light-armed ſkirmiſhers of the party. Ridicule, to have any permanent effect, ſhould be founded in truth.

Throughout the various events which ſucceed, the hiſtorian proceeds in the ſame impartial tenor. Among theſe, is the well-known impeachment of Mr. Haſtings. We cannot, in this place, agree in one opinion of the author; who ſeems to think that the charges would not have been brought forward, if Major Scott had not challenged Mr. Burke to the conteſt. The origin of that impeachment may, we think, be diſtinctly traced to a remoter ſource, namely, to the rejection of Mr.

Fox's India Bill; a part of the grounds upon which that Bill was ſupported, being the ſuppoſed malverſations and oppreſſions of the Governor-General; which, it was ſtrongly hinted, would be buried in oblivion, if the propoſed Bill were ſuffered to paſs. After relating the death of the celebrated King of Pruſſia, the author pourtrays his character, and gives juſt credit to the political and military talents of Frederic; but paſſes over too ſlightly, in our opinion, the profligacy of his moral character, his total diſregard of juſtice in political tranſactions, and his atrocious conſpiracy, with Voltaire, D'Alembert, and the reſt of that crew, againſt the deareſt intereſts of mankind. Hiſtorians indeed, like the reſt of the world, dazzled by the falſe luſtre of military glory, or warped by an exceſſive admiration of political talents, too often beſtow almoſt unqualified praiſe on characters and actions which merit the ſevereſt reprobation. An intereſting account of Margaret Nicholſon's attempt on the life of our Sovereign, cloſes the ſame chapter; and we have great pleaſure in extracting the reflections with which it concludes, as being perfectly juſt, and equally honourable to the King and the nation.

"Moſt providential it was, that this wretched creature made uſe of her left hand, her other preſenting the petition; and that its poſition was ſuch, that ſhe could only aim obliquely. Had her right hand been employed, which, where ſhe ſtood, could have ſtruck directly, diſmal might the conſequence have been. Even with the aim which ſhe took, the happineſs of the nation, in the ſafety of its revered monarch, was highly indebted to our king's preſence of mind. Had his majeſty been thrown into confuſion by a danger ſo unexpected, the fatal deed might have been perpetrated, before the attempt was perceived. Next to his magnanimity, the conſiderate humanity of the ſovereign ſhone moſt evidently conſpicuous. His benevolent injunction to abſtain from hurting a perſon who had compaſſed againſt him ſo atrocious an act, moſt probably ſaved the aſſaſſin from the ſummary and immediate vengeance of his ſurrounding ſubjects. Similar conduct in ſimilar circumſtances, this hiſtory has ſtill to record, concerning the ſame exalted character. Fortunately for their feelings, neither her majeſty nor any of the royal offſpring were preſent. The intelligence of the danger was accompanied by the certain information that it was eſcaped. The report of the aim excited horror and indignant reſentment through the nation, until the ſtate of the perpetrator's mind was made generally known, and the dreadful impreſſion of the calamity threatened yielded to delight that it had threatened in vain. The exquiſite pleaſure that reſults from terrible and impending evil avoided, poured itſelf in addreſſes of ardent and heart-felt loyalty from every quarter of the kingdom. His ſubjects before knew that they loved and revered their king; but now only felt the full force of

theſe affections, when the impreſſion preſent to their minds was the imminent danger of their object." P. 127.

The Commercial Treaty with France (the motives and conduct of which are amply detailed) the conſolidation of the Cuſtoms, the application of the Diſſenters for a repeal of the Teſt Act, and the further proceedings againſt Mr. Haſtings, are the ſubjects next treated; but we haſten to the conſideration of topics ſtill more important and intereſting. Among theſe is the revolution in Holland, effected by the arms of Pruſſia and the ſpirited co-operation of Great Britain. On the councils which planned and conducted this meaſure, the author beſtows, as is juſtly their due, the higheſt praiſe; in which, he obſerves, all parties moſt cheerfully concurred.

The next topic of great and ſtriking importance that occurs, is the propoſed abolition of the ſlave trade. In diſcuſſing this ſubject, the author, though in the main impartial, throws out ſome opinions, with which we do not agree, ſeeming to argue, that religious conſiderations ſhould have no influence in deciding the queſtion of negro ſlavery. It were eaſy, in our opinion, to ſhow the fallacy of this doctrine, as well as of moſt of the arguments by which the ſlave trade is ſupported, and which are ſtated very ſpeciouſly by this writer. We will not enlarge at preſent upon this ſubject, but take upon ourſelves to aſſert, that if no other benefit had accrued from the endeavours of Mr. Wilberforce and his ſupporters, than the Act paſſed for the preſervation of the Negroes*, and mitigation of their ſufferings during the middle paſſage, that meaſure alone would have entitled them to the gratitude of every generous and benevolent mind.

The commencement of Mr. Haſting's trial is then ſtated with due ſolemnity, and the proceedings during the ſame ſeſſion of parliament in which it commenced are detailed, as alſo the motion for an impeachment of the late Chief-Juſtice of India, with its rejection by a majority of the Houſe of Commons. Theſe and other domeſtic occurrences having received a due ſhare of attention, the affairs of the continent at this period (1788), the objects of the Auſtrian and Ruſſian ſovereigns, in their confederacy againſt Turkey, are ſtated, and the war which aroſe in conſequence is detailed. The author ſeverely, but juſtly, condemns the conduct of the united Imperial Courts, upon this occaſion, and appears to approve the

* The author, thinking perhaps *Negroes* too common a word, perpetually calls them *Negritians*. This is one, among ſeveral, inſtances of affectation, which we regret to ſee in the ſtyle of this work.

policy of Great Britain in forming ſuch continental alliances as tended to counteract their attempts, and to preſerve the balance of Europe. From the retirement, at this period, of the venerable Earl of Mansfield, the author takes occaſion to delineate his character. This portrait is executed, upon the whole, with ability. We would inſert it as a further ſpecimen of this hiſtorian's ſtyle, but its length would carry us beyond the limit which we muſt obſerve.

The author is now led, by the courſe of events, to that alarming and calamitous period when his Majeſty's firſt indiſpoſition took place. In diſcuſſing the meaſures which the two political parties reſpectively purſued, upon that occaſion, he endeavours to hold the balance even, condemning without heſitation the doctrine of hereditary regency, as aſſerted by Mr. Fox, but, on the other hand, diſapproving of the reſtrictions in Mr. Pitt's Regency Bill, and indeed (as we underſtand him) of all reſtrictions whatſoever. From this laſt opinion we entirely diſſent, and think we could amply juſtify the few reſtrictions impoſed in that Bill, did not delicacy towards the high perſonages concerned, as well as other conſiderations, prevent our reviving ſo unpleaſant a diſcuſſion. The remainder of the fourth volume is chiefly occupied by continental affairs, ſo various that we could not even enumerate them without exceeding our limits. We agree with the author, that " the ſummer of 1789 teemed with events of greater importance to the civilized world than any which are recorded in modern hiſtory". Previouſly, however, to any ſtatement of the tranſaction principally alluded to (the French Revolution) the war carried on by Sweden againſt Ruſſia, and the diſputes between the Emperor Joſeph and his Flemiſh ſubjects, are amply and ſatisfactorily related.

We now (at the commencement of the fifth volume) are plunged into that abyſs of horrors, the French Revolution; the events of which, and of the general war which ſprang from it, occupy by far the greater part of the two laſt volumes. Theſe events, though of the higheſt importance, being ſo recent, and the diſcuſſion of them familiar to moſt of our readers, we ſhall content ourſelves with a ſlight ſketch of this part of the work; and the rather, as we agree with moſt of the opinions given by the author. Perhaps, however, in ſtating the cauſes of that Revolution, rather too much weight is given to the corruptions and oppreſſions of the ancient government. Admitting the profligacy of many individuals in the French court; admitting that, in ſome particulars, the laws and uſages of that kingdom preſſed heavily on the lower claſſes of the people; yet, *upon the whole*, the government (eſpecially under

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Louis XVI.) was mild and equitable; *upon the whole*, the nation was flouriſhing; and, till agitated by wicked demagogues, contented and happy. We will venture to aſſert, that under that monarch a temperate reform might have been obtained without a ſtruggle, and would have been fully ſufficient (nay, was the only plan adapted) to the attainment of rational and ſubſtantial liberty. No writer, however, has more ſeverely condemned the pernicious, as well as viſionary, theories of the firſt French reformers, and the ſavage cruelties of their ſucceſſors, than the author before us; nor has any writer more completely expoſed their literary abettors and confederates in this country. Juſtice is alſo done to the extraordinary political ſagacity diſplayed on this ſubject by Mr. Burke, who (the author obſerves) "ſo early as the year 1772, in the theological ſcepticiſm and political hypotheſes of the French writers, ſaw the probable overthrow of religion and government."

In ſtating the cauſes of the late war, the author ſufficiently proves that France was the aggreſſor; yet he does juſtice (and we think rather more than juſtice) to the motives of the great orator who ſo vehemently oppoſed it, and diſplays his arguments in the ſtrongeſt light. Unwilling as we are to impute the influence of any but the moſt honourable feelings on a mind ſo powerful and comprehenſive, we cannot but think, that a conduct ſo adverſe to the general ſentiment, and (in our opinion) ſo dangerous to the general welfare, muſt, in part, have ariſen from jealouſy of his diſtinguiſhed rival; and was prompted (in a great degree) by the ſpirit of oppoſition, which, from being ſo long cheriſhed, acted perhaps unobſerved on the breaſt that harboured it.

Our limits will not permit us to accompany the author through the ſeveral details of the war; which are for the moſt part accurate, though in ſome inſtances they might have been more clear and diſtinct. One objection, however, we deem it our duty to make; and the rather, as we have already borne teſtimony to the author's general impartiality. Aſtoniſhed by the rapid career, and dazzled by the wonderful ſucceſſes, of Bonaparte, he is not ſufficiently careful to mark (and conſequently to reprobate) the infamous means by which a great part of thoſe ſucceſſes was obtained. To ſay nothing of his firſt exploit, the maſſacre of the Pariſians in 1795 (ſince Bonaparte might then be deemed a mere inſtrument in the hands of his tyrant employers), his proceedings in Italy are not repreſented in the dark and odious colours which to us they appear to deſerve. Even his military talents are, in our opinion, exalted rather above their juſt degree; ſince he was often oppoſed by Generals, either of ordinary capacity, or worn out

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by age and long ſervice; and many of the officers of the Auſtrian armies are known to have been diſaffected, if not traitorouſly ſold, to the enemy. This, indeed, the author mentions at the cloſe, but in a manner hardly conſiſtent with his former repreſentations. Allowing, however, the higheſt credit to the military exploits of Bonaparte, we are convinced that this author muſt, on reflection, regret having omitted, in ſeveral inſtances, to ſtigmatize his cool cruelty and wanton maſſacres. We will mention only two, as the moſt ſtriking. The deliberate murder, at Pavia, * (ſo coolly related by this General) of a whole municipality at once, without trial or examination, becauſe the inhabitants of that unfortunate town had riſen againſt their *invaders and oppreſſors*, is by this author mentioned as a *plot* excited by prieſts, and diſcovered by "the active vigilance of Bonaparte"; who, he calmly tells us, "ordered the principal conſpirators to be ſhot"; and this he calls "employing effectual means to cruſh inſurrection". Hiſtorians ſhould remember, that they are, in ſome meaſure, the guardians of public morals; and, in the preſent age eſpecially, (when, in the eſtimation of many, ſucceſs covers every kind of atrocity) they ſhould reſolutely oppoſe the corrupt judgments of the multitude, and ſtamp on every action the character which it truly deſerves.

The other inſtance of *inattention* (we would not give it a harſher name) which we deem it our duty to notice, is the ſlight and careleſs mention of the dreadful maſſacre at Jaffa. The following is the author's account of that tranſaction.

"On the 21ſt of March", ſays the Hiſtory, "the main army of the French began to move towards Jaffa (the ancient Joppa) a ſea-port in Paleſtine, between which and Damietta, along the coaſt, the whole is deſert and wild. This city is ſurrounded by a wall, without a ditch, and defended by ſtrong towers provided with cannon. Trenches were opened, batteries were erected, and a practicable breach was made in the wall; notwithſtanding two deſperate ſorties, and every exertion on the part of the garriſon, about 4000 ſtrong, the principal tower was taken, and the greater part of the brave defenders put to death, with a view, no doubt, of ſtriking terror into other parts of Paleſtine, and wherever Bonaparte might direct his march."

From this repreſentation the reader would be led to ſuppoſe, that theſe "brave defenders" were ſlain, if not during the aſſault, at leaſt immediately after it. Even ſuch a proceed-

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* "J'ai fait fuſiller la municipalite". See his Letter to the Directory.

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ing ſhould have drawn down ſome cenſure from the writer who, with juſt ſeverity, reprobates a ſimilar conduct of the Ruſſians at Iſhmael. Yet it is now, and has long been aſcertained, that at leaſt two thouſand of theſe gallant ſoldiers were, *ſome days after they had ſurrendered*, deliberately and wantonly butchered, by the cold-blooded cruelty of this *hero*. This ſurely deſerved a much more diſtinct and ſerious animadverſion; and, although the ſtill more horrible charge againſt Bonaparte, of poiſoning his own ſick or invalid ſoldiers, may not be ſo well authenticated, it has been too diſtinctly alledged not to deſerve ſome conſideration. To the narrative of the ſubſequent ſiege of Acre we ſee little to object, except that the infamous attempt of Bonaparte towards the cloſe of it (when he demanded a truce for the purpoſe of facilitating an aſſault) is unaccountably paſſed over, though it is related at large in the official diſpatches of Sir Sidney Smith.

With theſe, and a few other exceptions*, we can ſafely commend this work for its impartiality, its accuracy, and, in general, for the ſound judgment paſſed by the author on the tranſactions which he relates. That, when he has cenſured the opinions, or condemned the meaſures, of any political leader, he ſhould (though rather againſt appearances) ſtrive to remove the imputation of any improper motive, is natural in the hiſtorian of contemporary events, who (it has long ſince been obſerved) "*incedit per ignes ſuppoſitos cineri doloſo*". The few extracts we have been able to inſert will ſhow, that in deſcribing important tranſactions, or drawing diſtinguiſhed characters, Dr. B. can impart, in vigorous language, the reſult of acute obſervation. The chief blemiſh in the ſtyle of this work is, in our opinion, an occaſional inattention to purity of language and ſimplicity of expreſſion. Unauthorized words are ſometimes uſed where the proper terms are at leaſt equally expreſſive; as *executorial* (a clumſy word, of which the author is particularly fond) for *executive*, *judicative* for *judicial*, and *operatical* (an epithet ludicrouſly enough applied to *Thomas Paine*) for *operative*. Dr. B. is alſo rather too much addicted to adjectives derived from proper names; and his frequent repetition of them in the ſame ſentence gives the paſſages where it occurs a ſtrong tincture of

* Such, for inſtance, as the aſſertion, that Bonaparte, at the negociation at Campo Formio, "*with a view to ſecure permanent peace*, propoſed ſuch terms as might have even ſatisfied alternate victory". We believe alſo, that his attack on Venice, and deſtruction of that Republic, was founded on a flimſy pretext.

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affectation*. Yet these faults detract but little from the praise of a contemporary History, which displays such industry of research, such powers of description, and, above all, such soundness of principle, in estimating the true interests, and vindicating the genuine freedom, of mankind.

ART. IV. *An Inquiry into the Nature and Effects of the Paper Credit, &c.*

(Concluded from vol. xxiv. *p.* 624.*)*

IN the eighth chapter, Mr. Thornton proposes to refute the objection to country banks, resting on their alledged effect of raising the prices of commodities. This he declares to be "*particularly ill founded*"; although he expressly admits a general increase of paper to have that tendency. We do not stop to prove, that his admission, and the point he contends for, will not stand together; but wave this, and go into his reasons.

He begins by explaining how this paper credit operates; and, on this occasion, introduces a principle which has been almost passed over by systematic writers, which, although here laid down too exclusively, deserves it's full share of attention. When the supply of the market, particularly of commodities of necessity, or of the higher convenience, falls short, he says, without qualification, that the buyer is in the power of the seller; and, in the contrary case, the former dictates the terms: hence he states the question of price to be a question of force. We admit this in addition only to the received principle; and that the ingenious observations of Mr. Thornton upon this subject go the full length to prove, that the oscillation of prices very much exceeds what would be determined from the

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* In vol. i. p. 244, we have the following sentence. "Thus we have seen *French aggression*, after being for a time successful, rousing British energy, and producing *British victory*." Here, in two or three branches of the sentence, the adjective is joined, not to a quality, but an act or acts; which has a bad effect, except where custom has reconciled us to it, as in the term "*French Revolution*". Many similar instances might be produced.

compound ratio of the ſupply and demand of commodities and of currency.

That the paper of the bank of England raiſes prices, he admits: he next proceeds to the explanation of the mode in which it produces this effect; which, as far as it goes, has great ingenuity and clearneſs*. An addition made to the notes makes currency plentiful: men of known property think, that with leſs than their common reſerve of it they can obtain a ſupply on any particular emergence: hence they will make larger purchaſes where a probable future profit preſents itſelf to them; and the ſame expectation will make them more tardy to ſell; and the ſpirit, in each caſe, becoming general, will cauſe ſome advance in the rates of the market. But this ſecurity of being able to anſwer future demands, in caſe a man ſhould be induced to diminiſh his ſtock of currency a little, will have a further effect, not here noticed. He will become, in ſome meaſure, but certainly on the average in an inferior meaſure, a freer purchaſer of articles for his own conſumption, and that of his family, as well as of commodities for ſale; and the new demand for commodities will increaſe the quantity produced, or general product. Here the effect of the augment of currency will be twofold; ſome increaſe of product, and ſome of prices alſo; which latter will be the greater. It is on this principle that the increaſe of the products and prices in the ſeveral ſtates of Europe, ſince the diſcovery of America, is to be accounted for; and the great increaſe of the incomes of nations and individuals, which have been in the compound proportion of both.

After a digreſſion on the nature of foreign exchanges, Mr. Th. proceeds to conſider the mode in which Dr. A. Smith has attempted to demonſtrate the impolicy of thoſe bankers who iſſue more paper than can be employed in circulation; which is here ſhown to be fully inconcluſive. This leads him back to his main propoſition; that a great emiſſion of country paper in any diſtrict has no permanent effect in raiſing prices there.

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* The due method of conſidering the point he had laid down would have led Mr. Th. next to have ſhown, in what the nature of the paper of the bank of England ſo differed from that of the country banks, that although the augment of the firſt raiſed the prices of goods in the London market, that of the other had no ſuch effect on thoſe of the country. Inſtead of that, the ſubject of the bank of England notes leads him to that of exchange; but, as what he has ſaid on it here calls for ſome obſervations, we have given them a place in a former part of our ſtrictures on his work, where he ſays ſomething on the ſame ſubject.

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A conſiderable local riſe he admits it initially to produce; but he endeavours to prove, that they muſt ſoon fall again to their former rates. The analyſis of his argument is as follows: the new bills being payable in London, or in bank paper, they will be either directly or circuitouſly employed in the cheaper markets of other diſtricts, the commodities of which will be brought at reduced rates into that of the dearer; and prices muſt fall again therein, and that to their firſt rate, and not in part; otherwiſe this argument falls to the ground.

To this it will be replied, that ſuch entire reſtoration of the level of the market cannot by ſuch mode be brought about, although ſome depreſſion may ſo take place; nor can any very near reſtitution of the former values be ſo occaſioned; for the extraordinary demand for commodities in the diſtrict now become the cheaper, will produce ſome riſe in its proper market; carriage will make a ſecond addition to the firſt coſt of the commodity to the adventurer; and he muſt, in the third place, make a due profit on his capital employed, and on thoſe two charges; and, if the prices of the two diſtricts had been equal before the advance had taken place in the one, the commodities of the cheaper muſt be brought into the market of the dearer, with the ſum of theſe four augments; and the prices of the proper commodities of the latter can be forced down no lower by the co-operation of thoſe of the other*: and it may be with great facility demonſtrated, that the effects of country bills in their proper diſtrict, and the kingdom at large, are in kind the ſame as thoſe of the bank of England, locally and univerſally, that is, in England, and in the commercial world at large; for England is a diſtrict, although an important diſtrict, in the commercial world, and it's national paper but country paper there; yet the increaſe of this country paper raiſes the prices of the market of the whole commercial republic; and this Mr. Th. admits when he ſays, that *the iſſue of an extraordinary quantity of bank paper* [for the purpoſe of effecting the payments of London] *in a conſiderable degree reſembles the creation of an extraordinary ſupply of gold for the general uſes of the world.* P. 268.

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* Part of the arguments in the note to p. 6, apply here alſo. The market of the cheaper diſtrict will be raiſed, and it will obtain an addition to its currency for its commodities; if a third diſtrict increaſe its paper, there may be a ſecond and rival demand for the commodities of the ſecond, which thus will riſe nearly to a level with the other two; and prices, in parts of the country where paper does or does not circulate, will be nearly equal.

We cannot but think what follows this equally exceptionable; where Mr. Th. ſays, that the whole aggregate of country paper does not add any thing to the quantity of that of London. On the contrary, it ſeems evident, that the amount of the London paper is always in fact greater, on account of the exiſtence of the country paper; and, if the latter ſhould ceaſe to exiſt, the former might be diminiſhed by the amount of that exceſs; for the country notes being made payable by certain London bankers, and being paid in bank paper, they muſt keep by them a quantity of that paper, according to the demands on this head expected by them. Nor is it an anſwer to this to ſay, that the bank can limit its notes to any certain amount, or even that it can diminiſh them; for, although the bank paper be reduced, ſome will ſtill be held by the bankers, to anſwer the demand for the country notes; and, after ſuch limitation, the London payments (excluſively ſo called) will be made with a certain degree of facility or difficulty, be it more or leſs, the country notes continuing to be brought for payment; but if they were to ceaſe to exiſt, a ſtill leſs quantity would, with equal facility, tranſact the buſineſs of the mercantile metropolis: and the neceſſity for the exiſtence of the difference between the two quantities is cauſed by the exiſtence of the country notes.

The country banks never found a more zealous defender than Mr. Thornton. After having attempted to ſhow, that the increaſe of their paper could have no effect on prices, he next endeavours to prove, that no increaſe of their quantity to excite apprehenſion can be made; and that there exiſts a ſuperior power, at all times able to reduce their actual amount. As the baſis of this, he lays down a poſition of the greateſt conſequence; that the limitation of the ſingle article of the London paper limits the quantity of the whole paper of the country. This, he contends, ariſes from the circumſtance, that the iſſuers of the latter may be, and when their iſſues are exceſſive will be, compelled to exchange it for the former; but this argument, ingenious as it muſt be admitted to be, and apparently concluſive, is concluſive in appearance only. For, let the bank fix any limit to its notes, which it is determined not to exceed, the country bankers will be able to acquire all the notes which can be ſpared, after all other payments are provided for; and, if this ſurplus be continually increaſing, their iſſues may continually increaſe; and *cæteris paribus*, with at leaſt an equal celerity with that quantity of bank notes of which they can get the command. Now, if the power of bank notes in all other payments be increaſed, or tranſactions to the ſame amount can be carried on with a conſiderable leſs quantity of that paper

than

than before, the total commerce remaining the ſame, there will be a great quantity of bank paper to ſpare, to ſupport an increaſed iſſue of country paper; and the limitation of the notes of the bank will not prevent its increaſe; and, to a certain degree, not even the diminution of them.

But the quantity of bank paper required to make the ſame payments is continually diminiſhing; a fact which Mr. Thornton every where inculcates; and, among the points of curious information which his work gives, to thoſe who are not intimately acquainted with the more important points of the preſent hiſtory of the money market, this is one of the moſt important. Modes, he perpetually repeats, have been diſcovered of œconomizing the uſe, not only of coin, but of bank paper. Of the origin and progreſs of this new art, we ſhall extract ſome of the notices which his work contains. "The diſtreſs that was felt in 1793 compelled many to reſort to new expedients, tending to ſpare the uſe both of bank of England notes and coin; and the meaſures that were adopted at firſt through neceſſity, are afterwards perſiſted in becauſe they are œconomical" (p. 305); "and the very circumſtance of the ſuſpenſion of the caſh payments at the bank, by ſerving to ſtrengthen mercantile credit, has favoured the exerciſe of œconomy in the uſe of the paper of the bank of England" (p. 238); "merely by the transfer of the debts of one merchant to another, in the books of the banker, a large portion of what are termed caſh payments is effected at this time without the uſe of any bank paper" (p. 55); and this is extended to the caſe of the payments of merchants employing different bankers; for theſe bankers themſelves have, in their payments to be made to each other, adopted the following mode. "To ſpare the uſe, both of paper and guineas, it is the practice of each to ſend a clerk, at an agreed hour, to a room provided for that purpoſe, where each exchanges the drafts on other bankers received at his own houſe, for the drafts on his own received at the houſes of others"; and the accounts of each banker with all the reſt is balanced in a manner very eaſily to be conceived, by his clerk paying or receiving "the difference between the whole ſum he has to pay to all the other city bankers, and the whole ſum he has to receive of them", in bank notes or money; a difference "much leſs in its amount than his ſeveral differences would be equal to"; and it is to be added, on the equality of chance, very much leſs. Mr. Th. does not deſcribe the effect of this in very ſtrong colours, when, in the next words, he ſays, "this device ſerves to ſpare the uſe of bank notes". P. 55 (note). It may be denominated a circuitous barter of banker's credits and debts: but he goes further;

ther; for writing, after this expedient was fully brought into practice, he says, "the talent of œconomizing bank notes is a continually improving one"; whence, as above, the quantity required for the London payments, taken at any given amount, is continually diminishing; and that which may be spared, and may be obtained by the country bankers, is continually increasing, whence they are in a perpetual capacity to augment their notes; nor will that company be able to restrain them to their present amount, unless they shall diminish their own paper with a celerity somewhat greater, than that with which the effect of this increasing œconomy shall be perpetually augmented; and thus suffer their profits, which depend on its amount, to be continually decreased.

Here we must pause. No work known to us, has given such a formidable view of the cause of the depression of the value of money, and the increase of prices, as may be deduced from the facts here taken from Mr. Thornton; however disposed he appears to palliate their operation, they not only prove that our currency is increasing, but they show that the power of equal quantities of it is increasing also: for he places it beyond the possibility of doubt, that less sums will now complete the same numerical payment which required greater formerly; the circumstance that our currency was relatively increasing, and that prices must increase in some simple ratio * thereof, has long been deservedly the subject of apprehension; but it is now evident, that they must be perpetually increased in the compound ratio of that augment, and of the increasing power of equal sums; that is, of the power and the quantity.

As if this union of the two causes were not enough, he also avows the existence of a third and relatively new cause, greatly augmenting their compound effect; the monopoly of foreign commerce, which we may be said to have effectively obtained; although he considers it as not absolutely perfect. The rate of profit of the monopolist is always the highest possible, and to that rate the profits of our foreign commerce must, from that circumstance, have very nearly approached; the first consequence of which is, that the income of the mercantile class being greatly increased, they will become the consumers of more commodities, and especially elaborate commodities; and thus raise labour and prices. These great profits will also tempt new adventurers into foreign trade, withdrawing old from, and intercepting part of, the new capital which

* Population and product being taken to be fixed.

would

would have found its way into the market of home conſumption: nor will the impoſſibility of the moſt perfect combination of the old and new foreign trades, ſo much relied on, have that effect among them uſually aſcribed to it, to limit the new profits. In conſequence of this, there has been fewer rival capitals in the market of home conſumption, and it has fallen into fewer hands; and each diminution of the number of rival capitals and ſellers, is an approach to a monopoly, and produces a part of its effects; every perſon concerned in the home market, demands and obtains a greater profit: the manufacturer of the merchant to whom he ſells his goods; the merchant of the retailer whom he ſupplies; the retailer of the conſumer who pays the three augmented gains; and although a perfect combination of all the dealers in one article is impoſſible, yet each trade may be conſidered as a virtual corporation, and actuated by a corporation ſpirit; as forming a union, but not a perfect union. Now if all who are engaged in each, acted in one direction only, without preconcerted union of effort, its effect would be much; but, in reality, they approach very nearly to the acting in concert, and under a ſingle direction; and a great part of its effect is actually realized; for moſt trades for home conſumption are under the regulation of a few great capitaliſts in the metropolis, who are engaged in them; theſe conſult together, and communicate the reſults of their deliberations to the immediate correſpondents of the country traders; by whom the advice of theſe middle men is generally received and followed; and if not with the entire regularity of diſciplined bodies of troops at remote ſtations, acting by orders from a central military council, at leaſt with that of detachments of the beſt diſpoſed and moſt alert volunteers.

The private diſtreſs ariſing from the rapid increaſe of prices from theſe cauſes, the increaſe of the notes of the bank, the unreſtrained augment of country paper, the increaſed power of currency of all kinds, and the monopoly, we ſhall paſs by, to note another and more national conſequence, ariſing from the effect of a revolution which it ſilently introduces in the claſſes of ſociety; undermining civil ſubordination, that great ſupplement to law, acting while in vigour with a more extenſive, more conſtant, and more moral effect. Men of property are cuſtomarily divided into three claſſes; the mercantile, the monied, and the landed intereſts; the ſpirit of ſubordination in cities and great trading towns is maintained by the two former; and in ſuch places, as a manufacturing populace increaſes, it becomes more refractory, more debauched, and more ſeditious, notwithſtanding any increaſe of wealth

wealth and number of the greater traders, and on the monied men their dependence is indefinitely leſs, and may be taken as nothing.

The effect of this increaſe of prices on the ſpirit of ſubordination in the country, is now to be enquired after. The incomes of the commercial and monied men have been increaſed with a much greater celerity than that of the landed intereſt; with reſpect to the former, this is ſelf-evident; and of late years the addition to the intereſt of the public debt forms a part, and a part only, of the augment of the income of the latter. Now in any one year, each of theſe claſſes will divide the commodities produced for all collectively, in proportion to its income; and as the income of the landed claſs is perpetually declining in its proportion to that of the other two, its ſhare of the whole product of the year will be leſs than of thoſe preceding; together with that of every individual on the average. Now the real opulence of the claſs, like that of the individual, is as that ſhare; and the circumſtance of character being taken equal; and ſuch as neither adds to nor ſubtracts from it, his conſequence will be as his ſhare of opulence; and this is the root of the ſubordination of the inferior to the ſuperior claſs; with this it increaſes, with this it declines, and with this it periſhes.

In this univerſal progreſs of deſcent, many of the old gentry of the land are unable to conquer their old habits of conſumption, or to diminiſh their former appearance; they may, by preſerving it, preſerve that conſequence a little time, but it terminates in the ſale or diminution of their lands: thus their weight muſt daily be decreaſing, their number rapidly diminiſhing, and the vacuity ſupplied by the new men, who retire from commerce after having made their fortunes. But let the new proprietor be in character and in income equal to the individual of an old family whoſe place he takes; the neighbouring yeomanry and peaſantry will not look up to him with that reſpect, with which they recently regarded the repreſentative of a family, whom their anceſtors have reverenced for generations; hence, by a rapid change of landed proprietors, ſubordination is weakened in the country at large.

Beſides, as the landed intereſt is in a ſtate of ſwift relative decline, the daily increaſing opulence of the monied and commercial men will be perpetually adding to their aſcendency in the Houſe of Commons; which will be far from an improvement of its ſpirit; and of the great number of theſe claſſes who have had ſeats in that houſe for the laſt half century, we do not recollect one, who has been even reputed a great general politician. This evil alſo affects the commercial gentry themſelves,

themſelves, as ſoon as they retire to enjoy their acquiſitions. He who forty years ago converted his capital into a monied income, finds its power or command of commodities and ſervices already reduced in the proportion of 61 to 100, or 39l.* per cent. and they who inveſted their property in land, notwithſtanding the riſe of rents, find theirs reduced by about the half of that rate; and even the merchant, who after thirty years ſucceſsful traffic ſhall to-morrow withdraw from buſineſs, will find the acquiſitions of the firſt two thirds of that term greatly impaired in their power; and in this progreſs, one new ſet of landed proprietors will be rapidly ſucceeding another.

That highly valuable part of the population of a modified monarchy, an old landed gentry, and the ſubordination ariſing from the reſpect entailed on their names, we can no longer poſſeſs; and this claſs is a neceſſary counterpoiſe to all the irregularities into which ſuch ſtates are apt to run. It muſt be always changing, always new; and families to continue their real opulence unimpaired muſt continue commercial, until the ſpirit of the declining years and old age of the Dutch commonwealth, become that of the upper claſs of Great Britain; that is, the effective national character of Great Britain itſelf.

In our account of this work, abounding in original views, we had intended to have indicated the moſt remarkable, with a brief notice of our approbation or our doubt; and this we have done as far as our plan will admit. Some objections we have made to certain leading points which Mr. T. has advanced; and this more particularly to one, which ſeems of the firſt importance to him and to us; the poſition declaring the non-effectiveneſs of the country paper on prices; there are others likewiſe which ſeemed to us involved in great difficulties, which the reaſonings he brings to ſupport them did not diſpell. Such is the propoſition pervading almoſt the whole book; that to an adverſe courſe of exchange, a reſtriction of the iſſue of bank notes is a remedy; we cannot, however, omit to obſerve here, that we noted with ſome ſurpriſe, that he ſeems to depart from this poſition, ſo often inculcated, where he points out the good conſequence of the bank acting on a different principle, when the great adverſe balance of 1801 exiſted againſt us (p. 245). Nor can we go into any remarks on his new doctrine, that the value of currency riſes and falls temporarily with the market price of bullion; but we conjecture we ſhall be ſhortly obliged to ſtate our objections to it on another occaſion.

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* See Brit. Crit. vol. xxiii. Feb. 1804, p. 132.

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In this work, Mr. Thornton has brought forward, as we above obſerved, much new matter of curioſity and uſe; ſome points are ſtated in this work with adequate preciſion, on which few perſons, and fewer writers could have given any information at all; but ſome others which he has been, as we imagine, the firſt to propound, will not fall under either of thoſe deſcriptions: his elucidations are moſtly clear; but ſometimes obſcured by an endeavour after refinement, and a departure from the more obvious points of view of the ſubject; yet ſomething of this perhaps may be aſcribed to the preſent ſtate of the ſcience of political œconomics, where in the beſt writers we meet with many ſpecious propoſitions not drawn from induction, and phraſes inſtead of things. There is in this work an evident want of the cuſtomary regard to arrangement; much of it, however, muſt have been derived from the circumſtance of the author having changed his plan as he proceeded; extending it as he went along, from an eſſay on parts of the ſubject of paper credit, to an elementary treatiſe on its general nature and effect; but although this will not cover the whole of the charge, yet by making his work more extenſive, this has without doubt been the occaſion, that he has communicated to the world a much greater quantity of uſeful information than if he had reſtricted himſelf to his intended limits. He certainly deſerves to be numbered among the greater writers on paper credit; and ſeveral of the faults of thoſe who have preceded him, he has ably diſplayed; but we think he has advanced ſome things on certain points, which will give an opportunity to thoſe who may follow him, with equal ability and information, to ſhow the ſame ſagacity with reſpect to himſelf.

We muſt acknowledge the very long period our account of this work has been poſtponed after its publication; it has not been poſtponed, however, until the intereſt in it has been diminiſhed; unfortunately, one great part of the ſubject here diſcuſſed, the effect of paper credit on the price of neceſſaries, has become of much greater conſequence at preſent, than it was at the time of Mr. Thornton's publication, or at any time ſince; and the ſame is true of all remarks upon it.

J. B...d.

ART. V. *The Sports of the Genii. By Mrs. John Hunter.* 4to. 16 pp. With Fourteen Plates. Payne, Mews' Gate. 1804.

PROPRIETY demands a conſpicuous place to be given to this publication, though ſmall in extent, not only on account of the author, but of the ſubject. The genius and taſte of Mrs. J. Hunter deſerve reſpect; but, whatever may be the intrinſic merit of the preſent ſpecimen, it is conſecrated by being dedicated to the memory of an amiable and ingenious female, early loſt to her friends. Miſs Macdonald, the eldeſt daughter of the preſent Chief Baron of the Exchequer, was pleaſing in perſon, lively and faſcinating in her manners, and ſingularly ingenious in all works of taſte and art. The melancholy event of her death, when hardly arrived at Liſbon, under the care of her afflicted father, is too recent to be here related. It is but too juſtly told in the words of Young, a father ſimilarly circumſtanced, and not more affectionate.

"With haſte, parental haſte,
He flew, he ſnatch'd her from the rigid north,
Her native bed, on which bleak Boreas blew,
And bore her nearer to the ſun, the ſun * *
Deny'd his wonted ſuccour, nor with more
Regret beheld her drooping, than the bells
Of lilies, faireſt lilies, not ſo fair."

One of the elegant amuſements of Miſs M. had often been the cutting ſmall figures of Cupids or Genii, in the manner practiſed alſo by Princeſs Elizabeth, and giving them fanciful employments. In theſe inventions, her imagination was inexhauſtible, and her figures always graceful. Her intimate friend, Mrs. J. Hunter, has juſtly thought, that a more proper monument could not be raiſed to her memory, than one which ſhould owe a principal part of its attractions to her own ingenuity. Such is the origin of this truly pleaſing publication; in which thirteen plates engraved in outline, with great taſte and truth, give an exact idea of the original cuttings; and a fourteenth, deſigned by Mr. Maſquerier, repreſents a tomb, on which a Muſe is engraving the name of Suſan Macdonald. The following juſt and beautiful tribute to her memory, written by Mrs. J. H. accompanies this plate.

"Led by paternal Love's protecting hand
Where golden Tagus laves the Luſian ſtrand,
In ſearch of balmy Health, we ſaw thee part,
While Hope ſpoke comfort to the doubting heart.

Vain

Vain were, alas! the promiſes ſhe gave!——
The bloſſom fell, and dropp'd into the grave!
Theſe airy forms, which erſt thy hand pourtray'd,
Recal to Fancy's eye thy parted ſhade:
Taſte ſhall thy early talents learn to mourn,
While ſacred Friendſhip marks thy diſtant urn."

To give theſe ſketches the form of a book, Mrs. H. has written a ſhort poem to each. For theſe, which, though not elaborate, are pleaſing and ingenious, the poeteſs makes the following very modeſt interceſſion.

"Critics ſharp, with brow ſevere,
Our ſmall volume come not near:
Authors grave, and learn'd, and wiſe,
Never this way turn your eyes.

Let us wander, wild, and free,
In ſport and whimſicality,
Thro' gay Fancy's flow'ry maze;
Nor blame us though you ſcorn to praiſe."

We ſhould be ſorry to be ſo wiſe as not to be pleaſed with elegance, though employed on light ſubjects; or ſo moroſe, as to cenſure one of the moſt appropriate tributes of true friendſhip. Nor can the gravity of any critic be juſtly offended with a work, which, if it excites the ideas it is rightly calculated to produce, will lead even to melancholy reflections.

ART. VI. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1804. *Part I.* 4to. 190 pp. G. and W. Nicol. 1804.

THE contents of this volume conſiſt of eight papers; to which the Meteorological Journal, kept at the apartments of the Royal Society, is ſubjoined by way of Appendix. The ſubjects of thoſe papers are as follows.

I. *The Bakerian Lecture. Experiments and Calculations relative to phyſical Optics.* By Thomas Young, M. D. F. R. S.

This Lecture contains the account of ſeveral experiments and obſervations, principally relating to the coloured fringes that are produced by the paſſage of rays of light within a certain diſtance of the ſurfaces of interpoſed bodies. The propoſition which Dr. Y. deduces from thoſe experiments is, that

fringes of colours are produced by the interference of two portions of light.

The paper is divided into ſix ſhort Sections, the titles of which are, 1. Experimental Demonſtration of the general Law of the Interference of Light. 2. Compoſition of Meaſures, deduced from various Experiments. 3. Application to the ſupernumerary Rainbows. 4. Argumentative Inference reſpecting the Nature of Light. 5. Remarks on the Colours of natural Bodies. And, 6. Experiments on the dark Rays of Ritter.

II. *Continuation of an Account of a peculiar Arrangement in the Arteries diſtributed on the Muſcles of ſlow-moving Animals, &c.* By Mr. A. Carliſle.

About five years ago, Mr. Carliſle preſented to the Royal Society an account of a peculiarity in the diſtribution of the arteries ſent to the limbs of ſlow-moving animals, which is publiſhed in the volume of the Philoſophical Tranſactions for the year 1800. The preſent ſhort paper, which is accompanied with one copper-plate engraving, is intended as a continuation of the above-mentioned account: and contains further illuſtrations of the connection between the diſpoſition of the blood-veſſels and the actions of muſcles.

III. *An Account of a curious Phenomenon obſerved on the Glaciers of Chamouny; together with ſome occaſional Obſervations concerning the Propagation of Heat in Fluids.* By Benjamin Count Rumford, V. P. R. S. &c.

"In an excurſion", this author ſays, "which I made the laſt ſummer, in the month of Auguſt, to the Glaciers of Chamouny, in company with Profeſſor Pictet of Geneva, I had an opportunity of obſerving, on what is called the Sea of Ice *(Mer de Glace)*, a phenomenon very common, as I was told, in thoſe high and cold regions, but which was perfectly new to me, and engaged all my attention. At the ſurface of a ſolid maſs of ice, of vaſt thickneſs and extent, we diſcovered a pit, perfectly cylindrical, about ſeven inches in diameter, and more than four feet deep, quite full of water. On examining it on the inſide with a pole, I found that its ſides were poliſhed, and that its bottom was hemiſpherical, and well defined.

"This pit was not quite perpendicular to the plane of the horizon, but inclined a little towards the ſouth as it deſcended; and, in conſequence of this inclination, its mouth or opening, at the ſurface of the ice, was not circular but elliptical.

"From our guides I learnt, that theſe cylindrical holes are frequently found on the level parts of the ice; that they are formed during the ſummer, increaſe gradually in depth as long as the hot weather

weather continues, but that they are frozen up and diſappear on the return of winter."

Afterwards this author offers the following explanation of the above-deſcribed phænomenon.

"The warm winds which, in ſummer, blow over the ſurface of this column of ice-cold water, muſt undoubtedly communicate ſome ſmall degree of heat to thoſe particles of the fluid with which this warm air comes into immediate contact; and the particles of the water at the ſurface ſo heated, being rendered ſpecifically heavier than they were before, by this ſmall increaſe of temperature, ſink ſlowly to the bottom of the pit, where they come into contact with the ice, and communicate to it the heat, by which the depth of the pit is continually increaſed."

The remainder of the paper contains various remarks, which tend to corroborate this author's theory reſpecting the propagation of heat in fluids; namely, that fluids are not conductors of heat; therefore all the particles of a fluid muſt ſucceſſively come in contact with the heated body, in order that the whole quantity of fluid may be heated; ſo that if there be any immediate communication of heat from one particle of water to the other, that communication muſt be ſo extremely ſlow, as to be conſidered of no effect whatever.

IV. *Deſcription of a triple Sulphuret, of Lead, Antimony, and Copper, from Cornwall; with ſome Obſervations upon the various Modes of Attraction which influence the Formation of mineral Subſtances, and upon the different Kinds of Sulphuret of Copper.* By the Count de Bournon, F. R. S. and L. S.

The ſubſtance which forms the ſubject of this paper is found only in Cornwall.

"The colour of this mineral is a dark grey, inclining to black. It has a very brilliant luſtre. It is very brittle; fragments of it may be eaſily broken off by means of the nail. Its hardneſs is ſuch, that it very eaſily cuts calcareous ſpar; but it is not ſufficiently hard to ſcratch fluor ſpar. When rubbed pretty ſtrongly on white paper, it leaves on it a faint black mark; but not ſo readily as lead, or ſulphuret of antimony. It does not, when rubbed, emit any ſmell. When groſsly powdered, the powder ſtill retains the metallic luſtre. When thrown, in the laſt-mentioned ſtate, upon an iron not quite red hot, it emits a phoſphoreſcent light, of a bluiſh-white colour, but without any ſmell whatever; no ſuch light, however, can be obtained from it by means of friction. Its ſpecific gravity is 5765; it is conſequently ſuperior to that of ſulphuret of copper, or ſulphuret of antimony, but very inferior to that of ſulphuret of lead. The fractures of its cryſtals are not ſmooth, neither are they lamellated in any particular direction; but are generally granulated, and have rather a coarſe grain.

"The

" The cryſtals of this ſubſtance are very brilliant, and often of a very large ſize. I have ſeen ſome that were more than an inch in length, and of a proportional height; but, as moſt of them have a great number of facets, and are frequently very irregularly ſhaped, on account of the inequality of their increaſe, it becomes very difficult to determine their form; particularly as the cryſtals moſt commonly found are thoſe which differ moſt from the primitive; to which, on that account, it becomes very difficult to refer them."

This author, in order to promote the knowledge of thoſe mineralogical characters, proceeds to give a particular deſcription of whatever relates to the cryſtalline forms of the above-mentioned ſubſtance. The various ſhapes of thoſe cryſtals are delineated on an adjoining plate. The reſt of the paper is divided into two parts; the firſt of which contains obſervations on the various modes of attraction which influence the formation of mineral ſubſtances. The ſecond contains obſervations upon the different kinds of ſulphuret of copper. Of the ſubject which is particularly examined in the firſt of thoſe ſections, the following extract will give a ſufficient idea.

" Of the two kinds of attraction", this author ſays, " which have been hitherto permitted to prevail in the formation of mineral ſubſtances, namely, the *attraction of compoſition* and the *attraction of aggregation*, the latter is ſubject to different modes of action, all of which have a ſtriking effect in the formation of mineral ſubſtances.

" The firſt kind of attraction to which mineral bodies are ſubject, and which is generally known by the name of chemical attraction, is the *attraction of compoſition*. This kind of attraction takes place only between the moſt ſimple or primitive molecules of a ſubſtance; but, at the ſame time, it exiſts only between molecules that are diſſimilar, or that belong to different ſubſtances. To its action is owing the formation of new molecules, to which may be properly given the name of *ſecondary* or *integrant* molecules; becauſe they, and they only, determine the nature of all the compound bodies belonging to the mineral kingdom. Theſe molecules are the reſult of the intimate combination, in different proportions, of the primitive molecules of two or more different ſubſtances. The difference exiſting between mineral bodies conſequently depends upon the following circumſtances; firſt, upon the nature of the primitive molecules, by the combination of which they are produced; ſecondly, upon the proportion in which thoſe molecules are combined together."

The ſecond of the above-mentioned ſections contains a variety of obſervations on different ſpecimens of minerals, principally conſiſting of copper, iron, and ſulphur; and likewiſe on the peculiar cryſtalline forms which ſome of them are apt to aſſume.

V. *Ana-*

V. *Analyſis of a triple Sulphuret of Lead, Antimony, and Copper, from Cornwall.* By Charles Hatchett, Eſq. F. R. S.

The ſubſtance which forms the ſubject of the preſent analyſis is the ſame that has been deſcribed, with reſpect to its external characters, in the preceding paper.

The ſpecific gravity of this mineral Mr. H. found to be 5766, at the temperature of 65°, which is almoſt exactly the ſame as is given in the preceding paper. Mr. H. in the firſt place, deſcribes the effects which the blow-pipe, and likewiſe the nitric and muriatic acids, produced upon the ore; whence a general idea of its conſtituent principles was obtained. He then inſtituted a regular analyſis of the ſame, the reſult of which is as follows.

" 200 grains of the ore, treated as here ſtated, afforded

Sulphur — —	34 grains
Oxide of antimony	63
Sulphate of lead	120 20
Iron — —	2,40
Black oxide of copper	32.

" But the metals compoſing this triple ſulphuret are evidently in the metallic ſtate; and white oxide of antimony, precipitated from muriatic acid by water, is to metallic antimony as 130 to 100; therefore the 63 grains of the oxide muſt be eſtimated at 48,46 grains of the metal.

" Again, ſulphate of lead is to metallic lead as 141 to 100; therefore 120,20 grains of the former are = 85,24 grains of the latter. And laſtly, black oxide of copper contains 20 *per cent.* of oxygen; conſequently, 32 grains of the black oxide are = 25,60 grains of metallic copper.

" The proportions for 200 grains of the ore will therefore be,

Sulphur	34
Antimony	48,46
Lead	85,24
Iron	2,40
Copper	25,00
	195,70
Loſs	4,30

Or per cent.

Sulphur	17
Antimony	24,23
Lead	42,62
Iron	1,20
Copper	12,80
	97,85
Loſs	2,15."

VI. *Ob-*

VI. *Obſervations on the Orifices found in certain poiſonous Snakes, ſituated between the Noſtril and the Eye.* By Patrick Ruſſel, M. D. F. R. S. *With ſome Remarks on the Structure of thoſe Orifices, and the Deſcription of a Bag connected with the Eye, met with in the ſame Snakes.* By Everard Home, Eſq. F. R. S.

A ſingular orifice on each ſide of the head of the yellow ſnake of Martinico, between the noſtril and the eye, was firſt obſerved by Count de la Cepedé. Further opportunities manifeſted the exiſtence of ſimilar orifices in the heads of other ſerpents.

"It appears", Dr. Ruſſell obſerves, "on the whole, that the lateral orifices have hitherto been found only in venomous ſerpents.

"That (excluſive of the rattle-ſnake) they have been found in 15 or 16 ſpecies of colubers, and in 3 of the genus boa.

"That they have not as yet been diſcovered in any of the genus anguis.

"Mr. Home's inveſtigations have clearly eſtabliſhed, that theſe lateral orifices in ſerpents, and the bags to which they lead, have no communication with the organ of hearing. Another fact aſcertained by him is, that ſerpents diſtinguiſhed by lateral orifices have a cavity ſituated between the bag and the eye, which, ſo far as I know, has not been obſerved before."

Thoſe paragraphs are followed by Mr. Home's deſcription of thoſe orifices and bags, which are alſo delineated on an adjoining plate. The uſe of thoſe orifices and bags is not as yet known.

VII. *An Enquiry concerning the Nature of Heat and the Mode of its Communication.* By Benjamin Count Rumford, V. P. R. S. &c.

The experimental enquiry which is detailed in the preſent very extenſive paper muſt be conſidered as a continuation of thoſe experiments and obſervations on the very important ſubjects of the communication and application of heat, which this author has, at different times, either preſented to the Royal Society, or he has publiſhed in ſeparate eſſays.

In order to prevent, as much as poſſible, the interruption of his experimental narrative, he begins by deſcribing the moſt eſſential part of the apparatus.

Four mercurial thermometers, graduated according to Fahrenheit, and perfectly agreeing with each other, were procured. Their bulbs were quite naked, their ſcales terminating about one inch above the junction of the bulb with the tube.

"The inſtrument", he ſays, "I contrived for aſcertaining the warmth of clothing is extremely ſimple; it is merely a hollow cylindrical

drical veſſel, made of thin ſheet braſs. It is cloſed at both ends, and has a narrow cylindrical neck, by which it is occaſionally filled with hot water. This veſſel being covered with a garment made to fit it, compoſed of any kind of cloth, or ſtuff, or other warm covering, is ſupported in a vertical poſition, on a wooden ſtand, which is placed on a table, in a large quiet room; and one of the thermometers above deſcribed being placed in the axis of the veſſel, the time employed in cooling the water through the clothing with which the inſtrument is covered is obſerved and noted down.

" Now as the time of cooling through any given interval of the ſcale of the thermometer (or from any given degree above the temperature of the air of the room, to any other given lower degree, but ſtill above the temperature of the air of the room) will be longer or ſhorter, as the covering of the inſtrument is more or leſs adapted for confining heat, it is evident that the relative warmth of clothing of different kinds may be very accurately determined by experiments of this ſort.

" I provided four inſtruments of this kind, all very nearly of the ſame dimenſions. Their cylindrical bodies are each 4 inches in diameter and 4 inches long, and their cylindrical necks are about $\frac{8}{10}$ of an inch in diameter, and 4 inches in length. This neck is placed in the centre of the circular flat top, or upper end, of the vertical cylindrical body; and oppoſite to it, in the centre of the flat bottom of the body, there is a hollow cylinder, $\frac{8}{10}$ of an inch in diameter, and 3 inches long, projecting downwards, into which a vertical cylinder of wood is fitted, on the top of which the inſtrument is ſupported, in ſuch a manner that the air has free acceſs to every part of it. This cylinder of wood conſtitutes a part of the wooden ſtand above-mentioned.

" As the thermometer is placed in the axis of the cylindrical veſſel, and as its bulb is juſt as long as the body of this veſſel, it is evident that it muſt ever indicate the *mean temperature* of the water in the veſſel, however different the temperature of that water may be at different depths.

" The thermometer is firmly ſupported in its place, by cauſing a part of the lower end of its ſcale to enter the neck of the cylindrical veſſel, and to fit it with ſome degree of accuracy, but not ſo nicely as to be in danger of ſticking faſt in it.

" The lower end of the bulb of the thermometer does not abſolutely touch the bottom of the veſſel, but it is very near touching it."

The above-deſcribed inſtruments, together with other parts of the apparatus, are delineated on two plates, which follow the paper.

The firſt ſet of experiments, that were made with thoſe inſtruments, was intended to ſhow the law of the cooling of hot bodies in a cold fluid medium; and from the reſult of thoſe experiments, this author found reaſon to conclude, that in equal ſucceſſive portions of time the decrements of temperature of the hot body expoſed to a colder atmoſphere, as indicated by the thermometer, were in a geometrical progreſſion decreaſing,

decreaſing, or nearly ſo. In other words, that the times are as the logarithms of thoſe decrements.

The next ſet of experiments was made by uſing two of the above-mentioned inſtruments. In general they were both filled with hot water; but one of them was covered with ſomething different from the other, and in that ſtate they were expoſed to the ſame ambient air. The decreaſe of their temperatures was noted down at certain intervals of time; whence the effect of the different coverings, in preventing more or leſs the loſs of heat, was determined. Thoſe experiments were frequently attended with unexpected and remarkable reſults. Thus, for inſtance, it was found that certain coverings, inſtead of retarding, promote the cooling of the bodies upon which they are placed, when the apparatus is placed in a colder medium; and likewiſe that they promote the heating of thoſe bodies, when the apparatus is placed in a hotter medium. In the ſequel, another inſtrument of eſſential uſe in thoſe reſearches, is deſcribed in the following words:

"This inſtrument, which I ſhall take the liberty to call a *thermoſcope*, is very ſimple in its conſtruction. Like the hygrometer of Mr. Leſlie (as he has choſen to call his inſtrument) it is compoſed of two glaſs balls, attached to the two ends of a bent glaſs tube; but the balls, inſtead of being near together, are placed at a conſiderable diſtance from each other; and the tube which connects them, inſtead of being bent in its middle, and its two extremities turned upwards, is quite ſtraight in the middle, and its two extremities, to which its two balls are attached, are turned perpendicularly upwards, ſo as to form each a right angle with the middle part of the tube, which remains in a horizontal poſition.

"At one of the elbows of this tube, there is inſerted a ſhort tube, of nearly the ſame diameter, by means of which, a very ſmall quantity of ſpirit of wine, tinged of a red colour, is introduced into the inſtrument; and, after this is done, the end of this ſhort tube (which is only about an inch long) is ſealed hermetically; and all communication is cut off, between the air in the balls of the inſtrument and in its tube, and the external air of the atmoſphere.

"A ſmall *bubble* of the ſpirit of wine (if I may be allowed to uſe the expreſſion) is now made to paſs out of the ſhort tube, into the long connecting tube; and the opera ion is ſo managed, that this bubble (which is about $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch in length) remains ſtationary, at or near the middle of the horizontal part of the tube, when the temperature (and conſequently the elaſticity) of the air in the two balls, at the two extremities of the tube, is preciſely the ſame.

"By means of a ſcale of equal parts, attached to the horizontal part of the connecting tube, the poſition of the bubble can be aſcertained, and its movements obſerved.

"If now, the bubble being at reſt in its proper place, one of the balls of the inſtruments be expoſed to the calorific rays which proceed

in

in all directions from a hot body, while the other ball is defended from thoſe rays, by a ſcreen, the air in the balls ſo expoſed to the action of theſe rays, will be heated; and, its elaſticity being increaſed by this additional heat, its preſſure will no longer be counterbalanced by the elaſticity of the colder air in the other ball, and the bubble will be forced to move out of its place, and to take its ſtation nearer to the colder ball.

"By preſenting two hot bodies, at the ſame time, to the two balls of the inſtrument, taking care that each ball ſhall be defended from the action of the hot body preſented to the oppoſite ball, the diſtances of theſe hot bodies from their reſpective balls may be ſo regulated, that their actions on thoſe balls may be equal, however the temperatures of thoſe hot bodies may differ, or however different may be the quantities, or intenſities, of the calorific rays which they emit.

"The inſtrument will ſhow, with the greateſt certainty, when the actions of theſe hot bodies on their reſpective balls are equal; for until they become *unequal*, the bubble will remain immoveable in its place.

"And, when the actions of two hot bodies on the inſtrument are equal, the relative intenſities of the rays they emit may be aſcertained, by the diſtances of the bodies from the balls of the inſtrument.

"If their diſtances from their reſpective balls are equal, the intenſities of the rays they emit muſt of courſe be equal. If thoſe diſtances are unequal, the intenſities will probably be as the ſquares of the diſtances, inverſely."

It is not in our power to follow this author through the whole of his extenſive paper, and deſcribe the nature of all his valuable experiments. But we ſhall point out a few of the moſt remarkable particulars; and ſhall then ſubjoin his general and uſeful concluſion.

The nature of the metal which formed the cover of the above-deſcribed cylindrical veſſels, made no difference with reſpect to the emiſſion of heat; for the heat was given off with the ſame facility, though the veſſel was ſucceſſively covered with a variety of metallic coats.

Similar experiments were alſo inſtituted by covering thoſe veſſels with a variety of other ſubſtances, in order to determine the power of retarding or accelerating the emiſſion of heat or cold, which thoſe ſubſtances might have. The reſults were various.

The moſt remarkable ſet of experiments, which is contained in the preſent paper, is that which relates to the radiation of cold bodies. Theſe experiments ſeem, in great meaſure, to prove that cold is ſomething poſitive, and not merely the abſence of heat. But the preſent imperfect ſtate of knowledge relative to the ſubject, does not enable us to determine the point with any appearance of certainty.

After

After the recital of the experiments, this author enters into a very particular examination of the nature of heat and cold, which he conſiders as relative terms, like faſt and ſlow. He reflects with propriety on the probable cauſe of thoſe effects which have already been aſcertained with reſpect to heat and cold; and at laſt concludes with the following uſeful remarks.

" In all caſes", he ſays, " where it is deſigned to preſerve the heat of any ſubſtance which is confined in a metallic veſſel, it will greatly contribute to that end, if the external ſurface of the veſſel be very clean and bright: but if the object be to cool any thing quickly, in the metallic veſſel, the external ſurface of the veſſel ſhould be painted, or covered with ſome of thoſe ſubſtances which have been found to emit calorific rays in great abundance.

" Poliſhed tea-urns may be kept boiling hot with a much leſs expence of ſpirit of wine (burnt in a lamp under them) than ſuch as are varniſhed; and the clearer and brighter the diſhes, and covers for diſhes, are made, which are uſed for bringing victuals on the table, and for keeping it hot, the more effectually will they anſwer that purpoſe.

" Saucepans, and other kitchen utenſils, which are very clean and bright on the outſide, may be kept hot with a ſmaller fire, than ſuch as are black and dirty; but the bottom of a ſaucepan, or boiler, ſhould be blackened, in order that its contents may be made to boil quickly, and with a ſmall expence of fuel.

" Propoſals have often been made for conſtructing the broad and ſhallow veſſels (flats) in which brewers cool their wort, of metal; on a ſuppoſition that the proceſs of cooling would go on faſter in a metallic veſſel than in a wooden veſſel; but this would not be found to be the caſe in fact, a metallic ſurface being ill calculated for expediting the emiſſion of calorific rays.

" The great thickneſs of the timber of which brewers flats are commonly made, is a circumſtance very favourable to a ſpeedy cooling of the wort; for, when the flats are empty, this maſs of wet wood is much cooled, not only by the cold air which paſſes over it, but alſo, and more eſpecially, by evaporation; and, when the flat is again filled with hot wort, a great part of the heat of that liquid is abſorbed by the cold wood.

" In all caſes where metallic tubes filled with ſteam are uſed for warming rooms, or for heating drying-rooms, the external ſurface of thoſe tubes ſhould be painted, or covered with ſome ſubſtance which facilitates the emiſſion of calorific rays. A covering of thin paper will anſwer that purpoſe very well, eſpecially if it be black, and if it be cloſely and firmly attached to the ſurface of the metal with glue.

" Tubes which are deſigned for conveying hot ſteam from one place to another, ſhould either be well covered up with warm covering, or ſhould be kept clean and bright. It would, I am perſuaded, be worth while, in many caſes, to gild them, or at leaſt to cover them with what is called gilt paper, or with tin foil, or ſome other metallic ſubſtance which does not eaſily tarniſh in the air.

" Black cloths are well known to be very warm in the ſun; but they are far from being ſo in the ſhade, and eſpecially in cold weather.

ther. No coloured clothing is ſo cold as black, when the temperature of the air is below that of the ſurface of the ſkin, and when the body is not expoſed to the action of calorific rays from other ſubſtances.

" It has been ſhewn, that the warmth of clothing depends much on the poliſh of the ſurface of the ſubſtance of which it is made; and hence we may conclude that, in chooſing the colour of our winter garments, thoſe dyes ſhould be avoided which tend moſt to deſtroy that poliſh; and, as a white ſurface reflects more light than an equal ſurface, equally poliſhed, of any other colour, there is much reaſon to think that white garments are warmer than any other, in cold weather. They are univerſally conſidered as the cooleſt that can be worn, in very hot weather, and eſpecially when a perſon is expoſed to the direct rays of the ſun; and, if they are well calculated to reflect calorific rays in ſummer, they muſt be equally well calculated to reflect thoſe frigorific rays by which we are cooled and annoyed in winter.

" I have found, by direct and deciſive experiments (of which an account will hereafter be given to this Society) that garments of fur are much warmer, in cold weather, when worn with the fur or hair outwards, than when it is turned inwards. Is not this a proof that we are kept warm by our clothing, not ſo much by confining our heat, as by keeping off thoſe frigorific rays which tend to cool us?

" The fur of ſeveral delicate animals becomes white in winter, in cold countries; and that of the bears which inhabit the polar regions, is white in all ſeaſons. Theſe laſt are expoſed alternately, in the open air, to the moſt intenſe cold, and to the continual action of the ſun's direct rays during ſeveral months. If it ſhould be true that heat, and cold, are excited in the manner above deſcribed, and that white is the colour moſt favourable to the reflection of calorific and frigorific rays, it muſt be acknowledged, even by the moſt determined ſceptic, that theſe animals have been exceedingly fortunate, in obtaining clothing ſo well adapted to their local circumſtances."

VIII. *Experiments and Obſervations on the Motion of the Sap in Trees.* By Thomas Andrew Knight, Eſq.

In another paper, which, about a twelvemonth ago, Mr. Knight preſented to the Royal Society, he advanced a conjecture, " that the veſſels of the bark, which paſs from the leaves to the extremities of the roots, were, in their organization, better calculated to carry the fluids they contain towards the roots than in the oppoſite direction."

Subſequent experiments, carefully inſtituted, ſeem to corroborate the above-mentioned conjecture; and it is the account of thoſe experiments (for the particulars of which we muſt refer our readers to the papers itſelf) that forms the ſubject of the preſent paper.

Appendix, containing *the Meteorological Journal, kept at the Apartments of the Royal Society, by Order of the Preſident and Council.*

This

This Journal is, as uſual, divided into eleven columns, for the ſtatement of the following particulars; namely, 1. Days of the months; beginning with the 1ſt of January, and ending with the 31ſt of December, 1803. 2. Six's thermometer, leaſt and greateſt heat. 3. Time of taking the obſervations, which is twice a day; namely, about ſeven or eight o'clock in the morning, and two in the afternoon. 4. Thermometer without. 5. Thermometer within. 6. Barometer. 7. Hygrometer. 8. Rain. 9. Winds. 10. Strength of ditto. 11. And weather.

It appears that the greateſt height of the thermometer, namely 86°, was obſerved on the 2d of July. The leaſt, namely 19°, was obſerved on the 26th of January, and on the 11th of February. The mean of the thermometer for the whole year was 50,5. The mercury in the barometer ſtood higheſt, namely, at 30,53 inches, on the 1ſt of December; and it ſtood loweſt, namely, at 28,67 inches, on the 11th of November. The mean of the barometrical height for the whole year was 29,91 inches.

The quantity of rain-water fallen during the whole twelve months, amounted to the perpendicular height of 17,922 inches.

Art. VII. *Obſervations upon ſome Paſſages in Scripture*, &c.

(Concluded from vol. xxiv. *p.* 679.*)*

OF the particular hiſtories in the ſacred writings which, in the work before us, Mr. Bryant undertakes to explain, the ſecond in the order of time is that which gives an account of the ſun and moon ſtanding ſtill at the command of Joſhua. Finding, however, as he imagines, the ſame myſterious meaning in ſome of the exploits of Samſon that he diſcovered in the hiſtory of Balaam, he very properly deviates from the chronological order, and treats of thoſe exploits immediately after that hiſtory. Having quoted Judges xvi. 14, &c. for which our readers may have recourſe to their Bibles, he ſays:

"From this hiſtory we learn, that there was a place called Lechi in the region of Philiſtim, antecedent to the age of Samſon; for there the Philiſtines were gathered in a body to receive him. It was probably a city of note, by their thus aſſembling together; and it ſtood in a diſtrict of the ſame name; for it ſaid, Judges, chap. xv. ver. 9, that *the Philiſtines ſpread themſelves in Lechi.* From this name we may judge

judge that there was a Petra, or place of divination, and the ſeat of idolatry. Here alſo, as we are informed by ſeveral writers, was a fountain of the ſame name as Lechi, the place to which it belonged. Concerning this fountain we ſhall find that there have been ſome great miſtakes. It is rendered by the Grecians σιαγων, the jaw; and the ſame interpretation is given by Aquila and Symmachus. This is countenanced by Jerome, and others of his nation, who call it maxilla. An object called maxilla, and σιαγων, muſt have a reference to ſome animal; and there was in it an alluſion to ſome prevailing opinion, in conſequence of which this particular name was beſtowed. This animal was undoubtedly חמר, Chomar, Aſellus; and the ſtream by ſeveral authors is called Maxilla Aſini; and Ονου σιαγων of the ſame purport. This place, as well as the fountain, was undoubtedly held ſacred, and dedicated to the Onager, or Aſellus, *on account of that animal's inſtinctive powers, and ſagacity before mentioned;* and for its being here, as well as in Edom and Midian, eſteemed oracular." P. 117.

Not only the city and temple of Lechi, but alſo its *name* and *fountain*, he contends, in oppoſition, as he acknowledges, to all antiquity, were long anterior to the age of Samſon. For this, however, no other proof is brought, than that when firſt mentioned in the 9th verſe of the chapter, it is called *Lehi;* but had any other man built any poſition on ſuch an argument as this, Mr. Bryant would have been tempted to laugh at his ignorance. The Book of JUDGES was written ſome time after the death of Samſon; and to the places mentioned in it are given the names by which they were known to the Iſraelites in the age of the author. This was the practice of all the hiſtorical writers of the Old Teſtament. Moſes, deſcribing the terreſtrial Paradiſe, mentions four rivers, or rather the four branches of a river, which went out of it, by the names of *Piſon*, and *Gihon*, and *Hiddekel*, and *Euphrates;* but ſurely Mr. Bryant did not ſuppoſe that theſe were the names of the rivers *before the garden was planted in Eden*. Nay, ſo neceſſary was it deemed to make the Hebrew Scriptures intelligible to every reader, that Ezra, or the Great Synagogue, heſitated not to inſert the modern names of places into the moſt ancient writings. Thus, in the Books of Joſhua and Judges, we find the name of *Jeruſalem* inſerted; though it is certain, that at the period when thoſe Books were written the name of the city was not Jeruſalem, but *Jebus;* and, in like manner, the place at which the Philiſtines were to receive Samſon bound is called *Lehi* when firſt mentioned, though the ſacred writer ſays expreſsly, that it was ſo denominated from his having there killed a thouſand men with the jaw-bone of an aſs*.

* See Parkhurſt's Lexicon on the words לחי and מרש.

But,

But, ſays the author, it had this name long before, becauſe the wild aſs was there worſhipped, where, by his inſtinctive ſagacity, he had diſcovered a fountain of water. We have already proved, that this inſtinctive ſagacity of the Onager is a mere hypotheſis, contrary to fact; and ſhall bring an additional proof of our poſition preſently: but, granting that Lehi was dedicated to the aſs, why was it called the *jaw* in particular? Surely אף, the *noſe* or *noſtrils*, would have been a much more ſignificant name than לחי, a *jaw*, if the aſs was deified for *ſnuffing up the moiſture of the air*. But the truth is, that there was no fountain at Lehi till one was miraculouſly produced at the prayer of Samſon; and therefore the place could not have been dedicated to the aſs on account of the inſtinctive faculty attributed to him by the author. Indeed, had the aſs been deified for that faculty, how could Mr. Bryant ſuppoſe, that the fountain which quenched the thirſt of Samſon was brought from a ſocket in the *jaw-bone* of that animal? Such a miracle would have encouraged the Philiſtines in their idolatry; for it muſt have been conſidered as a demonſtration of the ſovereignty of their god over that element, for his relation to which, the Onager is here ſuppoſed to have been worſhipped as his living ſymbol. We certainly do not think that it was from the *jaw-bone* that Samſon was ſupplied with water. Such, however, is the author's opinion; and the inference is an argument, at leaſt *ad hominem*, that the reaſon which he has aſſigned for the deification of that animal cannot be the *real* reaſon.

It is, however, extremely probable, that there was an idolatrous temple at Lehi, and that the aſs was the animal moſt frequently ſacrificed to the deity, whether Dagon or ſome other idol, to which that temple was dedicated. Pallas aſſures us, that among the *Kirgiſians* the roaſted fleſh of the wild aſs is deemed one of the greateſt dainties; and we know from Pliny*, that the fleſh of the young Onager was in great requeſt among the Roman epicures. We therefore fully admit the truth of the following obſervations, which, however, ſeem utterly irreconcileable with the author's great hypotheſis, that the aſs was the emblem of the god of Lehi.

"There is ſomething remarkable in the words of the ſacred writer, when he tells us ſo particularly that the jaw-bone was new and freſh. I ſhould from this circumſtance conclude, that it belonged to the body of an animal of this kind, which had been juſt ſacrificed at Lechi, and upon which body they had regaled themſelves. Other-

* Lib. viii. C. 44.

wiſe,

wiſe, how could the head have been ſeparated from the vertebræ, or the jaw from the head? Such a ſeparation ſeldom happens till after a long ſtate of putrefaction. I am therefore led to conclude, that there had been a ſacrifice and a feaſt, and that this animal was the victim. Such offerings were not unuſual in this part of the world; and the aſs was the common food of the people in the vicinity of Edom and Iſhmael, as may be known from the hiſtory of the Iſhmaelites. Of them we are told, that upon their being converted to Chriſtianity they gave up the feeding upon wild aſſes and camels. Why they abridged themſelves of this indulgence, I know not; it is ſufficient that we are from this evidence certified, that they once fed upon them; and what they fed upon they generally offered to their gods. This affords ſome authority for the cuſtom prevailing in Philiſtim and Canaan." P. 132.

It affords, indeed, high authority for believing that the cuſtom prevailed in Philiſtim and Canaan; and that authority is confirmed by various other teſtimonies, which the erudition of the author has here brought to view. But if ſuch was the caſe, the miraculous exploit of Samſon was a conſpicuous manifeſtation of the ſuperiority of Jehovah over the gods of the Philiſtines; ſince a bone of that very animal which had been offered in ſacrifice to their tutelar deity was made the inſtrument of their own deſtruction, as well as of the preſervation of their moſt formidable foe. There is no neceſſity, therefore, in order to maintain the author's great principle of the reference of the ſcripture miracles to the hiſtory and religion of the perſons immediately concerned, to ſuppoſe that the Onager was deified by the Philiſtines; and far leſs to contend, in oppoſition to all antiquity, and even to the teſtimony of the ſacred hiſtorian, that Lehi received not its name from the wonderful exploit of the Hebrew chief, and that the fountain of Lehi was anterior to that exploit. If there was any water there previous to the miracle, it was in all probability a ſalt water pool; for Dagon, the great god of the Philiſtines, ſeems to have been a marine deity, the ſame with the Neptune of the Greeks and Romans; and near to his temple there may have been a pool full of ſacred fiſh, as we know there was near to the temple of Derceto, the goddeſs of Aſkelon. But of all this the ſacred writer makes no mention: he ſays only, that when Samſon was athirſt and ready to die, God, at his earnest prayer, clave a hollow place, not in the jaw-*bone*, but in the rock, or whatever elſe was, at the time of writing the Book of Judges, denominated *Lehi*, or the *Jaw*; that "water came thereout"; and that he (Samſon) called the name "thereof En-hakkore", *the fountain of him that prayed*, which fountain (עין), was in Lehi when he (the author) was writing.

To this interpretation of the paſſage, the author makes ſome objections; but they are altogether unworthy of him, and ſuch indeed as deſerve no anſwer. Thus, when he contends that Samſon could not drink of the waters which the wild aſs had found ages before at Lehi, becauſe forſooth they were conſecrated to that animal, he forgets that St. Paul permits Chriſtians, not indeed to join in idol ſacrifices, but to eat whatever was ſold in the ſhambles, whether it had been offered to idols or not, aſking no queſtions for conſcience-ſake; and that Samſon, however irregular the general current of his life may have been, was certainly at Lehi under the influence of the ſame ſpirit by which the Apoſtle wrote. David likewiſe, in a caſe of extremity, ate the ſhew-bread, which was unqueſtionably conſecrated to the true God; and as ſuch could not, in ordinary caſes, be eaten without ſin but by prieſts only; and why might not Samſon have drunk, to quench his thirſt, of a fountain even conſecrated to the god of the Philiſtines, had there been any ſuch in the place called Lehi? By doing ſo in private, he would not ſurely have been guilty of idolatry, ſeeing that "an idol is nothing in the world"; and the effect produced on the minds of the Philiſtines, ſuppoſing them to have ſeen him drink of their ſacred ſtream, could not have been ſo pernicious as that which muſt have reſulted from their perceiving a fountain ſpring from the jaw-bone of their god of fountains.

The obſervations which follow, on Samſon's deſtroying the corn of the Philiſtines by foxes and firebrands, are excellent, and ought to ſilence for ever the cavils of infidelity, and the petulance of ignorance. The ſtratagem, as is here proved by the moſt unexceptionable teſtimonies, was common in the early ages of the world; and it was obviouſly as well calculated to ſerve the end propoſed, as any thing which the wit of man could deviſe. We are extremely ſorry that we cannot allow the ſame merit to the ſucceeding diſſertation.

That there are difficulties in the ſcriptural account of the ſun and moon's ſtanding ſtill at the command of Joſhua, has been often felt, and we believe never denied; but the account of every miracle muſt be attended with difficulties, to him who preſumes to judge of the immediate operations of God by the principles of a ſuperficial philoſophy. That he, by whoſe volition alone the heavenly bodies move, according to fixed laws, in their reſpective orbits, could by another volition ſuſpend theſe diurnal motions, and arreſt the rotation of the earth, for inſtance, round her own axis, will not ſurely be denied by any man who is acquainted with the firſt principles of mechanical philoſophy, and has any tolerable notion of the power and wiſdom of

God. But this is all that was neceſſary to produce the miraculous phænomenon recorded in the Book of Joſhua; and yet ſo confident is the author, that the whole account of that phænomenon cannot be true, that, without pretending to the authority of any ancient manuſcript, he raſhly pronounces part of it an interpolation from the Book of Jaſher, which he ſuppoſes to have been a work of no credit*. He retails the objections to this narrative, which have been a thouſand times urged by others, and as often anſwered, though unworthy of an anſwer; but reſts his *own* objection to the *poſſibility* of the miracle on the circumſtance of Joſhua's being, at the time when it is ſaid to have been wrought, beyond Gibeon and Ajalon, towards the ſouth.

" We have ſeen that the two cities, Gibeon and Ajalon, bordered upon each other†, and were in the tribe of Dan. Joſhua, chap. xix. ver. 42. When Joſhua came to their aſſiſtance, upon their being ſuddenly attacked, and in great danger from the five kings, their deliverance was quickly inſured. We have alſo ſeen, that Joſhua drove the enemy downwards towards the ſouth, and purſued them to Bethoron. From that place the enemy fled to Azekah and Makkedah, farther ſouth. The whole progreſs of Joſhua from Gibeon was in that direction, with the Sun before him; and at the ſame time, during this purſuit, the city Gibeon, and the vale of Ajalon, were behind him, directly north. How then could the Sun and Moon be ſeen over them, when they were in ſo contrary a part in the heavens? If there be any truth in hiſtory, no ſuch appearances could have happened. The ſuppoſition is ill-founded, and the fact impoſſible." P. 175.

This language is abundantly confident; and yet the argument derives all its apparent force from the author's miſtaking the ſenſe of the original Hebrew. The radical import of the word דום, which Arias Montanus and he ſuppoſe to be *ſilence*, is *equable*, *level*, *uniform*, *even*, *parallel*‡. The ſun muſt therefore have been ready to ſet, with his rays paſſing in a horizontal direction, gilding perhaps the turrets of Gibeon, when Joſhua ſaid שמש בגבעון דום, *ſolar light remain on Gibeon.*

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* For ſome excellent obſervations on the Book of Jaſher, the reader is referred to the late excellent Biſhop Horne's *Letters on Infidelity.*

† For the truth of this, no ſatisfactory proof is brought; and we are inclined to think, that though both in the country of the ſame tribe, they were at a conſiderable diſtance from each other.

‡ This is ſufficiently proved by Mr. Parkhurſt in his Lexicon; where it is likewiſe ſhown, that the word tranſlated *ſun* ſignifies often the ſolar rays; and that בחצי השמים might be rendered " the ſolar light ſtayed in the viſible horizon".

Accordingly, when in the ſubſequent verſe it is ſaid, that "the ſun ſtood ſtill and the moon ſtaid", the word employed, when ſpeaking of the moon, is דמם; of which the radical meaning is, to *be ſupported in a place.* The fact then ſeems to have been, that juſt when the ſun was ſetting, and when the moon was ſhining faintly on the vale of Ajalon, which was too low to be then touched by the ſolar rays, the diurnal rotation of the earth was ſtopt; and if ſo, how could it be impoſſible for perſons further ſouth than Gibeon and Ajalon to ſee the phænomenon which followed this exertion of almighty power?

Let not the reader, however, ſuppoſe that Mr. Bryant has here deſerted the cauſe of revelation. He admits that a miracle was performed at Gibeon and Ajalon; though it had no relation, he ſays, to the luminaries in the heavens;

"but to two idolatrous, and probably oracular, temples of the Sun and Moon, for which the two places mentioned were celebrated. There were many others in Canaan, where the like worſhip prevailed, as we may learn from the cities ſtyled Beth-Shan, Beth-Sur, Beth-Shemeſh, Beth-Meon, Beth-Baal-Meon, and the like." P. 179.

This we readily admit; and if he had aſſerted, that the rays of the ſetting ſun, when he was arreſted in his courſe, were gilding the turrets of the temple dedicated to his worſhip at Gibeon, we ſhould not have called in queſtion the truth of the aſſertion; but though the miracle was probably wrought to wean the Gibeonites from their idolatry, and to guard the Iſraelites from the danger of their example, we ſee no neceſſity for adopting the following emendation of the ſacred text.

"And it came to paſs, as they fled before Iſrael, and were in going down to Bethoron, that the Lord caſt down great ſtones from heaven upon them, unto Azekah, and they died. There were more, which died with hail-ſtones, than they which the children of Iſrael ſlew with the ſword. Then ſpake Joſhua to the Lord, in the day when the Lord delivered up the Amorites before the children of Iſrael; Sun, *upon (the high place of) Gibeon be ſilent;* and, thou Moon, in the valley of Ajalon. And Joſhua returned, and all the people with him, unto the camp at Gilgal." Chap. x. ver. 11, &c.

Here the 13th and 14th verſes of our preſent text are omitted, and the author's interpretation of the 12th confidently inſerted as its true meaning. But he ſupports it thus:

"The words of Joſhua are undoubtedly uttered in the name of God, and not addreſſed to the two fictitious luminaries, except in a ſecondary direction; and were probably a wiſh, and prayer, rather than a command. They proceeded from an ardent zeal to eſtabliſh the worſhip and true religion of the Deity, and from a grateful ſenſe of his goodneſs

neſs in affording ſuch a miraculous victory. The purport and ultimate deſign of this addreſs, though couched in a ſmall compaſs, ſeems to be this:—God of all victory, may thy people, from this inſtance of thy ſuperiority, be confirmed in their duty, and worſhip thee alone. And may the Gibeonites, and their confederates, by this diſplay of thy power, be weaned from their idolatry, and ſee the inferiority of their baſe deities. May the Sun, whoſe oracular temple ſtands upon Mount Gibeon, be dumb; and the Moon, whoſe ſhrine is in the valley of Aialon, be equally ſilent. May their oracles ceaſe for ever." P. 187.

All this is very plauſible and very pious; but may not we with equal plauſibility, and in conformity with the ſacred text, ſuppoſe the purport and ultimate deſign of Joſhua's addreſs to be this?

" God of all victory, may thy people, from this inſtance of thy ſuperiority, be confirmed in their duty, and worſhip thee alone. And may the Gibeonites, by this diſplay of thy power, be weaned from their idolatry, and ſee the inferiority of their baſe deities. May the Sun be compelled by thee to linger in the horizon, ſhining on the temples of Gibeon, and the Moon to ſtand over the valley of Ajalon, that theſe two greateſt deities of the nations beholding, as it were, the overthrow of their votaries, may bear witneſs to their own impotence, and thus proclaim to all the earth—" The Lord, he is the God; the Lord, he is the God."

To prove the ſuperiority of Jehovah over the gods of Canaan, is undoubtedly the moral import of the miracle. Thus far we entirely agree with the author; and we leave it to the reader to judge for himſelf, whether ſuch a proof would have been moſt completely exhibited by ſilencing *two heathen oracles*, whilſt hundreds were permitted, even in the neighbourhood, to give out their reſponſes as formerly; or, by *arreſting in their courſes the Sun and Moon*, the two greateſt Divinities of all the heathen nations, until the worſhippers of the true God had avenged themſelves on their votaries. To us we confeſs, that there appears ſo little room for ſtating a compariſon between the two miracles conſidered in this reſpect, that even the love of novelty and paradox ſeems hardly ſufficient to account for the origin of Mr. Bryant's hypotheſis.

Of this author's obſervations on the hiſtory of Jonah, with which the work before us concludes, we know not what character to give. They diſplay, as uſual, great ingenuity, and great erudition, while they contain nothing contrary to the ſacred text; but for the *theory* advanced, however plauſible in itſelf, we long for better evidence. Having aſcertained that *Gath Hepher*, the place of the prophet's reſidence, was in the country afterwards called *Galilee*, and *Galilee of the nations*; and having ſatisfied himſelf, that the *Galileans* were a

mixed

mixed race, prone to all the modes of idolatry which prevailed in the ſurrounding nations, Mr. Bryant obſerves of Jonah, that

" as he came from among a mixed and unſettled people, he was probably of unſettled and corrupt principles; one of thoſe, of whom it is ſaid—*They feared the Lord, and ſerved their own gods—They feared the Lord, and ſerved their graven images.* This, I think, may be fairly inferred from his behaviour. He is indeed ſtyled—*a ſervant of the Lord:* but it is well known, that the Lord had many wayward and unfaithful ſervants, who were diſobedient to his word; whom alſo he forced againſt their will to accompliſh his purpoſe. This refractory prophet of Galilee ſeems to have been one of the number of thoſe unſettled in their principles, as Balaam had been before, and Judas afterwards." P. 202.

This author is even led to think from the ſituation of Jonah, and his particular conduct, not only that he was infected with the prejudices and baſe worſhip of the people around him, but alſo that he officiated at their altars, and maintained among them the twofold character of prophet and prieſt. All this may be true; but the reader will find no evidence of it in the Bible, the only book of antiquity in which he is mentioned. This idolatrous and obſtinate man, Jehovah, to magnify his own power over the gods of the heathen, commanded to go to Nineveh, the metropolis of the Aſſyrian empire, and preach repentance to the people. But the prophet was terrified at the proſpect which ſuch a commiſſion preſented to his view; and had ſo little of that fear, which is the beginning of wiſdom, that he determined not to obey. " *But Jonah roſe up to flee unto Tarſhiſh from the preſence of the Lord; and went down to Joppa. And he found a ſhip going to Tarſhiſh; ſo he paid the fare thereof: and went down into it to go with them to Tarſhiſh, from the preſence of the Lord.*" *Jonah, chap.* i. *ver.* 3.

From the prophet's imagining that it was poſſible to flee from the preſence of the LORD, Mr. Bryant fairly infers, that he could have had no other idea of the LORD, than that he was the tutelar deity of Iſrael, juſt as Dagon and Derceto were the tutelar deities of Philiſtim; and he ſuppoſes that he proceeded to Joppa rather than to Tyre or Sidon, which were nearer to Gath Hepher, becauſe he was more devoted to the gods of Joppa, than to thoſe of Tyre and Sidon.

" When Jonah arrived at Joppa, as he had deſerted the God of Iſrael, we may ſuppoſe, that he put himſelf under the protection of the deity of the place. In conſequence of this he muſt have made his oblations at the altar, and worſhipped before the ſhrine. What is extraordinary, this deity was deſcribed as a whale, or large fiſh. Pliny ſpeaks of Joppa

as a city of the higheſt antiquity, and concludes with ſaying—*Colitur iſtic fabuloſa Ceto. *Here the deity in the form of a fiſh, called Ceto, concerning which there are ſo many mythic hiſtories, is worſhipped.* By Ceto, or Cetus, was underſtood, according to Heſychius, θαλασσιος ιχθυς μεγαθης; *a ſea-fiſh of an immenſe ſize:* and it is very properly tranſlated a Whale." P. 213.

We have then a diſſertation on the principal deities of Philiſtim, in which it is proved that *Venus-piſcis*, *Atargatis* or *Derceto*, was the chief object of worſhip at Joppa; that ſhe was repreſented by the figure of a large fiſh, with the head and breaſts of a woman growing out of its mouth; that ſhe was always attended by her myſtic dove, to which the name of Jone or *Jonah* was given; and that under whatever title, and in whatever ſhape this goddeſs appears in the writings of antiquity, ſhe is always repreſented as the ſovereign of the ſeas, whom the winds and floods poſitively obeyed. To a place where this deity was worſhipped, Jonah betook himſelf, in order to flee from the preſence of the Lord.

"As he had the folly to withdraw himſelf from one God, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, that he put himſelf under the care and diſpoſal of another. He joined with thoſe whom he was to accompany, in making his vows and offerings to the Ceto, under whoſe protection he was to traverſe the ſeas; and whoſe inſigne the ſhip probably bore. Under the ſhelter and ſanction of this deity, he thought to elude the all-ſeeing eye of Providence. *But the Lord ſent out a great wind into the ſea, and there was a mighty tempeſt.* Every perſon called upon his God: and all thoſe of Joppa muſt neceſſarily have applied to their marine deity, the Cetus, but they could obtain no help. They ſuſpected that ſomebody under a curſe was on board; and that this evil came upon them for affording him ſhelter. They therefore caſt lots of inquiry, and the lot fell upon Jonah." P. 235.

To his confeſſion, as we have it in ſcripture, the author thinks he may have added, that in conſequence of his deſerting the Lord God of Heaven,

"he had put himſelf under the protection of another power, the deity of Joppa, who was ſuppoſed to rule both the winds and waves. *Then were the men exceedingly afraid;* and they had particular reaſon; for they found, that the tempeſt which prevailed, was raiſed by the God of Iſrael, whom they did not ſerve; and that all the deities to whom they had applied, could not in the leaſt allay it. The ſuperiority therefore was manifeſt. *Then ſaid they unto him, What ſhall we do unto thee, that the ſea may be calm unto us?—And he ſaid unto them, Take me up, and caſt me forth into the ſea; ſo ſhall the ſea be calm.* This he muſt have ſaid by a divine cogency, θεοπνευστος; otherwiſe he

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* Vol. i. lib. v. p. 260.

could

could not have been ſo certain of the conſequences. The mariners, however, are unwilling to make him a ſacrifice, and for ſome time delay. They tried to get back to their own coaſt; but the deity, who there preſided, had not power to bring them to her harbour.——They therefore—*took up Jonah, and caſt him forth into the ſea; and the ſea ceaſed from its raging. Then the men feared the Lord greatly, and offered a ſacrifice unto the Lord, and made vows.* Theſe vows we may imagine to have been, that they would for the future reverence the true God, whom the winds and ſeas obeyed, and not put their truſt in their national deities, whoſe inferiority had been ſo manifeſt, and in whom there was no help. This happy conſequence is apparent. But before they could have offered any ſacrifice (though the fact is mentioned afterwards) *the Lord had prepared a Ceto, or great fiſh to ſwallow up Jonah.* This we may preſume was done immediately, when the Prophet was caſt over-board into the ſea; and conſequently the mariners in the ſhip muſt to their aſtoniſhment have ſeen the proceſs. They muſt have beheld a real Leviathan of the deep acting as an inſtrument of heaven, againſt which their imaginary and emblematical deity had no power. Neither Dagon, nor Atargatis, nor Ceto of Joppa, could prevent one of the community, and a votary, from being entombed in the body of this monſter." P. 236.

That there is in this reaſoning much ingenuity, no man ſurely will deny; but to the concluſion, as it is here drawn, we foreſee an objection, which, as the author has not taken the trouble to obviate it, ſeems to have eſcaped his notice. May it not be ſaid, that the devouring of Jonah by the *great fiſh* in the preſence of the mariners, had in itſelf a tendency to confirm them in their baſe worſhip? If indeed they had poſſeſſed any portion of that perverſe obſtinacy, which characterizes modern unbelievers, they would undoubtedly have concluded, from witneſſing ſo tremendous a ſcene, and the calm by which it was inſtantly ſucceeded, that their deity was the great power which Jonah had offended; that ſhe had therefore ſtirred up a tempeſt in the ocean, to avenge herſelf of this occaſional worſhipper of Jehovah; and that as ſoon as ſhe had accompliſhed that object, ſhe took compaſſion on her faithful adherents. This objection, however, is completely done away by the concluſion of the ſcene.

" As the mariners had laboured for a while to gain the land, but were prevented; we may ſuppoſe, that after the ſtorm was over, they returned in their ſhattered veſſel to their haven at Joppa, and there gave a full account of this wonderful event. The Prophet too, after he had been for an appointed time conſigned to a death-like darkneſs in the body of the fiſh, was brought to light, and freed from his impriſonment. He was reſtored to the *ſame coaſt*, and among the *ſame people*; for among them the hiſtory was retained and tranſmitted to other nations, though mixed with fable. It was thus ſophiſticated both by the Greeks and Romans, who, from a remote ſimilitude, adapted it to another

other object, to which it had no relation. But the original hiſtory may be plainly perceived. Here the Cetus was ſtranded; and in its laſt efforts and agonies, within view of the temple of Derceto, and in ſight of its numerous votaries, it diſgorged the apoſtate Prophet. He was not permitted to extricate himſelf, and come forth with a decent appearance; (how *could* he have done this?) but the fiſh ſpued him out in a moſt filthy manner, as a foul and polluted object. This afforded a ſalutary leſſon to the people of the place. At the ſame time, it muſt have brought much diſgrace upon the goddeſs, the ſuppoſed Empreſs of the ſeas, within whoſe purlieus the Prophet had taken ſhelter, when he fled from the God of Jehovah." P. 239.

That this was the real ſtate of the caſe, we have no doubt. The ſcripture, indeed, does not expreſsly ſay that the ſhip returned to the haven of Joppa, nor that the prophet was reſtored to the *ſame coaſt*, and among the *ſame people*; but as the ſtorm came on immediately after the ſhip quitted the harbour, as ſhe was like to have been *broken* in the ſtorm, and as the mariners *rowed hard to bring her to land*, they would ſurely bring her to the neareſt land. Jonah too was ſtill to be ſent on his embaſſy to Nineveh; and it is not conceivable that the Whale would be guided to a coaſt, whence he could not, without another voyage, travel to that city. Theſe concluſions this author ſupports by the teſtimony of Pomponius Mela and Pliny, who both ſpeak of the large bones of a ſea-animal, which were preſerved at Joppa, and held in religious reverence; and by the deſcription of the coaſt given by Arrian, from which it appears, that nothing ſhort of a miracle could have carried ſo huge an animal ſo far on ſhore. Thoſe writers, indeed, ſuppoſe the bones to have been the bones of that ſea-monſter to which Andromeda was expoſed; but, as Mr. Bryant obſerves, the ſcene of action to which the fable of Andromeda relates, was in a far diſtant country; and the ſwallowing and diſgorging of Jonah were events, which could not fail to make the bones of the animal be preſerved with care. This being the caſe, the victory of Jehovah was indeed conſpicuous. The mariners could no longer think their Derceto the ſovereign of the winds and ſeas, ſince they had ſeen the living ſymbol of that power employed by the God of Iſrael, as an inſtrument to puniſh, and, at the ſame time, preſerve one of his wayward and refractory ſervants.

Plauſible, however, as this account of the miracle is, it can be compared only to thoſe hypotheſes in phyſical ſcience, which are admitted as laws of nature, becauſe they ſerve to group together a number of phænomena, which they ſeem to explain. We have no evidence that Jonah, when in Gath-Hepher, worſhipped, together with Jehovah, the gods of the

Philiſtines,

Philiſtines, or that when he came to Joppa, he put himſelf under the protection of the Ceto; and yet upon the truths of theſe hypotheſes depends, in a great meaſure, the force of all this author's reaſonings. That the hypotheſes are probable, we admit; for the prophet muſt have looked upon the God of Iſrael as a mere local deity, or he could not have thought of fleeing from his preſence, and he had but one ſtep further to proceed in abſurdity, by conſidering Derceto as the tutelary deity of Joppa and the ſea.

On the whole, we have diſcovered in this work, much learning, much ingenuity, and an uniform good intention, for which the pious author, we doubt not, is now rewarded; but truth compels us to add, that it diſplays a defect in judgment, and a too evident propenſity to ſupport a favourite hypotheſis. The reaſons which are aſſigned for the deification of the Onager are inconſiſtent with fact; while others might have occurred, which are incontrovertible. But having taken up the opinion that *Anah* was by Tacitus confounded with *Moſes*, and that it was by means of the *aſs*, that the former diſcovered the water, which the hiſtorian ſays was diſcovered by Moſes, Mr. Bryant ſeems to have been ſo delighted with the novelty of the thought, that at Lehi he makes the ſame animal both the god and the ſacrifice. Yet in his moſt paradoxical obſervations, many valuable hints are thrown out, which others may improve, and which, even as given by him, ſhow the abſurdity of "placing ignorance in the oppoſite ſide with knowledge, ſo as to *ſuffer what we do not know, to militate againſt what we do.*"

ART. VIII. *Modern London: being the Hiſtory of the preſent State of the Metropolis. Illuſtrated with numerous Copper-Plates.* 4to. 3l. 3s. Phillips. 1804.

HOWEVER rapid the progreſs of book-making has lately been in this country, and however ingenious the contrivances to intercept the rewards of original literature, or uſeful compilation, we ſhall not probably for ſome time be able to ſay, that the vamping art has reached its higheſt perfection. We have no means indeed to calculate the zeal of thoſe who furniſh deceptions, or the number of thoſe who are willing to be deceived; and although we know that ſubſtantial food has been brought into diſrepute, we cannot anticipate the various gildings and ornaments by which flour and water may be rendered palatable, or appetites be rendered more corrupt.

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We may, however, congratulate that part of the public who are in moſt danger, on the more ſplendid forms in which addreſſes are made to their ignorance and good nature. The book-makers no longer play the piddling game which procured for their works the name of catch-*pennies;* but, adapting themſelves to the ſtate of modern luxury, fiſh for pounds and guineas; and in return provide articles, which, like our modern cabinet furniture, are fitter to be looked at than touched, and which preſent ſome allurements to the eye, without making any demand on the underſtanding.

On theſe principles we may ſafely recommend the work before us, as very ſplendidly poſſeſſed of many of the *taking* qualities now in vogue. There is not only the "rivulet of text", and the "meadow of margin", but fine paper, and fine printing, and pretty prints, and pretty cuts, ſelected from objects which cannot fail to captivate the attention; from the lads and laſſes rolling down Greenwich-Hill on Eaſter-Monday, to the ſolitary nymph who cries her water-creſſes. But this is not all the merit of the volume. Our readers probably have obſerved a common trick lately practiſed, of cutting down folios and quartos to the ſize of octavos and duodecimos, and thus bringing to the pocket, what was before almoſt a burthen for the back. The reverſe has been attempted in this work, and with complete ſucceſs. In the Preface it is ſaid, that "the Picture of London", (a ſmall five ſhilling volume, of which we gave ſome account in our Review, vol. xx. p. 447) is "the ſkeleton upon which the preſent work has been formed". As we know not what the publiſher may mean by *ſkeleton*, we ſhall content ourſelves with ſtating, that "Modern London" is merely a republication of the "Picture of London", with a few trifling additions, ſcarcely any of which are of that kind which add uſefulneſs, or can confer more importance on "Modern London", than when it flouriſhed in its humbler ſhape. The arrangement of the articles is the only novelty; and this, in point of convenience, has no apparent advantage over the former. But we grant that it has been very convenient to make a number of ſeparate articles with titles, as this ſerves to give the appearance of increaſe, without any of the trouble of providing new matter. The "Picture of London", thus expanded, occupies 375 pages of a volume, which conſiſts of 501.

Here and there, however, we perceive an article which has received the additional touches of ſome ingenious pen; and we ſhall notice a few of theſe ſupplementary beauties. One is entitled, "the Influence of Commerce on Morals", which occupies no leſs than a page and nearly an half, and from which

which we learn, that "notwithſtanding the ſelfiſh and injurious propenſities of commerce", which are either above or below the author's notice, for he has not mentioned them, "honeſty is the beſt policy"; a truth which needed not to be announced in ſuch ſtate and form, had it not been neceſſary that all the contents of this pompous volume ſhould correſpond in outſide dignity. In p. 366, the account of St. Pauls is a literal copy from the "Picture of London", except the paragraph we are about to quote; in which the author, after mentioning the French, Spaniſh, &c. flags hung up there, concludes with an inſinuation which none will be at a loſs to underſtand.

"Whether wiſdom and virtue will continue to diſplay memento of the pernicious animoſities of nations, which are their moſt dreadful ſcourge, their maſter vice, in temples ſolemnly dedicated to a benignant Deity, the God of Peace, futurity muſt determine."

It is much in the ſame ſpirit, that we are told the Tower is a place "whoſe every apartment recalls *the crimes of kings*."

The article of the Britiſh Muſeum is altered from "the Picture", and ſomewhat enlarged, with the following reflection of true Paris manufacture;

"Literary men complain heavily of too much reſtriction in what regards the library. At the great library in Paris any books may be taken home, by men for whom reſponſible people will anſwer; or by thoſe who are known. Neither is there any occaſion for the ſtudious to aſk leave; egreſs and regreſs are free at the ſtated hours."

The chapter of Priſons is much enlarged: this, indeed, ſeems a favourite ſubject; but the author reſerves his novelties of ſentiment for the celebrated priſon in Cold-Bath-Fields; on this topic, after many cautious hints, and ſome difficult ſuppreſſion of his real opinion, he throws a ſudden light upon the whole, by a compliment to "the interference of an honourable and worthy man, Sir Francis Burdett". There is alſo an article on Magazines and Reviews, which we do not find in "the Picture". With the Reviews, the author, and perhaps with good reaſon, ſeems to be out of humour. The Magazines are obviouſly noticed for no other purpoſe, than to throw out ſome inſidious reflections on that truly reſpectable publication, the "Gentleman's Magazine"; and to introduce a puff, much in the ſtyle of the lottery-puffs, with which the public are at preſent amuſed, in favour of another monthly work, the religious and political principles of which induce us to hope, that the ſtatement here given of its ſucceſs is conſiderably exaggerated. The only other additional matter that requires notice, is about a page and a half at the concluſion of "Public Amuſe-

Amuſements", in which, among other paradoxes, it is ſaid, that

" the powers of man have not hitherto invented a mode of inſtruction ſo alluring, ſo deeply impreſſive, and ſo profoundly adapted to inculcate the nobleſt principles and the pureſt virtues, as the dramatic art"; and " it may juſtly be doubted if any prohibition was ever more irrational or impolitic than that which has been laid upon the ſtage; or any monopoly that can be compared, as oppreſſive in an equal degree, to that of the theatres in London. It appears like a conſpiracy to extirpate the divine art of poetry, and its keen, delightful, and ſtill more divine offspring, a pure moral ſenſe"!

If theſe beauties are excepted, and a few accounts copied from the parliamentary records, relating to the Bank, &c. we may ſay with confidence, that " the Picture of London" contains all that is valuable in this bulky and expenſive volume.

But plates are added, and they next demand our attention. For what claſs of perſons they are intended, may perhaps be gueſſed from a liſt of them. " London and Weſtminſter from the Obſervatory at Greenwich; Greenwich Hoſpital; Greenwich Park, and the holiday folks tumbling down the hill; the Court of King's Bench, *trying a cauſe;* the Mall in St. James's Park, very much crowded; Hyde Park, in the ſame condition; the Horſe Guards; Weſtminſter from Lambeth; the King going to the Parliament houſe, " all as natural as the life", but rather ſmaller; the Houſes of Lords and Commons in full debate; interior of the rotunda in the Bank of England, with the brokers and all their cuſtomers; the Royal Exchange at the hour of buſineſs; St. Paul's, with the Lord Mayor's Show, very fine; the Society of Arts diſtributing the premiums, with portraits of the Preſident and other diſtinguiſhed perſonages; but the ſpectator muſt look for theſe in the letter-preſs, as they are not to be found in the print. There are alſo inſide views of the Theatres, and of Vauxhall, on overflowing nights.

Prefixed to this new edition of the " Picture of London" is a ſketch of the ancient hiſtory of the metropolis, " compiled", the editor ſays, " from the beſt authors, and from original manuſcripts, by a diſtinguiſhed antiquary". Upon theſe accounts, we could wiſh it had been extended a little further. It is compiled with taſte and judgment, and is as ſatisfactory as ſo brief a ſketch could be expected. With the publiſher, however, it appears to have been only an inferior object; and we haſten, therefore, to the third and laſt part of this volume, in which he appears to have collected all his force, " to elevate and ſurpriſe". And here we take our leave of objections, for all that follows will comparatively be praiſe.

Whether this part of the work be performed by the gentleman by whoſe ingenuity the duodecimo was inflated into the ſize of a quarto, we have no means of judging. It may have been the reſult of a combination of talents, and a council of wiſe men; but we are rather inclined to think, that the principal merit belongs to the publiſher; and this opinion does not proceed from any intention to flatter him, or diſcourage his authors, but in truth ariſes from the plan itſelf; the nature of which is ſuch, as to require for its due execution a certain proportion of the brain into which it firſt entered. It is true, any man, woman, or child may publiſh the "Cries of London"; but to offer them as the principal return for the ſum of three guineas is ſomewhat new; and, if ſucceſsful, will be thought very meritorious.

In order, however, to dignify the "Cries of London", and liſt them up to the gaping purchaſers of the volume, the plates are ſaid to repreſent "the *itinerant traders* of London in their ordinary *coſtume*". They conſiſt of

"Baking or boiling apples—Bandboxes—Baſkets—Bellows to mend—Brick-duſt—Buy a bill of the play—Cats' and dogs' meat—Chairs to mend—Cherries—Door mats—Duſt O!—Green haſtings—Hair brooms—Hot loaves—Hot ſpice gingerbread—Knives to grind—Lavender—Mackarel—Matches—Milk below—New potatoes—Old cloaths—A poor ſweep, Sir—Rabbits—Rhubarb—Sand O!—A ſhowman—Slippers—Sweep ſoot O!—Strawberries—and Watercreſſes."

By this liſt it may be perceived, that the publiſher has preferred the alphabetical order; and that this is the beſt, we are more willing to take for granted, than to provoke a controverſy of which it might be impoſſible to ſee the end, or to involve ourſelves in a diſpute ſo much out of our uſual track. Allowing, then, that the ingenious author has adopted an arrangement not only ſuitable to the dignity of the ſubject, but to the capacities of thoſe for whom this part of the work is intended, and to whom, from the nature of their ſtudies, every repetition of the alphabet may be uſeful, we proceed to ſtate, that theſe baking apples and bandboxes, &c. are engraven on thirty-one plates, four inches by two and a half; and are very ingeniouſly made to repreſent, on the back ground, certain ſtreets and edifices, of which notices are given in the letter-preſs, a page of which accompanies each plate, deſcribing firſt the cats' meat, and then the place where it is actually at that moment ſold or ſelling. But here we have to regret the magnitude of the publiſher's wheelbarrows and carts, which

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are made to cover our principal edifices in ſuch a manner, that we are frequently puzzled to know

Where ends the *barrow*, or begins the *ſquare*.

With the publiſher, indeed, "houſes and churches" are but "geeſe and turkies". Hence a few bars of railing are made to paſs for a ſquare, and a couple of columns repreſent a church or a palace. Whitfield's Tabernacle is concealed behind "wicker baſkets", and Shoreditch Church is half ſwept away with "hair brooms": even that noble ſpecimen of modern architecture, once burnt by the careleſſneſs of fidlers and figure-dancers, the Pantheon, is here diſtinguiſhable only by its connection with "hot ſpice gingerbread". Our readers may probably recollect the old burleſque bet of "Cheapſide to a China orange", which they will find curiouſly illuſtrated in theſe plates, where we behold ſuch amazing odds as "Smithfield to a pair of bellows", and "Soho-Square to a broken chair", "St. James's Palace to a Kentiſh cherry", and "Northumberland Houſe to a door mat".

As to the execution of theſe plates, which, by the bye, are coloured, we muſt ſpeak with ſubmiſſion; not having been, perhaps, ſuch attentive obſervers of itinerant traders as the contriver of this part of the work; but, with reſpect to the figures, it appears to us that the ladies have a daſh of the ſentimental, which is not very conſiſtent with milk or mackarel; and that the dreſſes of ſome of the gentlemen ſmell of the ſhop rather than the ſtall. As, however, they are generally depicted with open mouth, the deſigner may perhaps have engaged them to *cry* for their likeneſſes, in which caſe our remarks muſt be rejected. We offer them, indeed, with great deference; and, as we are willing that ſo ingenious a ſpecimen of the art of book-making ſhould be encouraged and *cried* up, we will take the further liberty to ſuggeſt that, in our humble opinion, ſome itinerant traders are omitted, who may think themſelves entitled to an equal ſhare in the publiſher's ſplendid liberality. We are not ourſelves very feelingly intereſted in ſuch matters; but, having ſubmitted this grand work to the critics of the nurſery and the kitchen, the former complained of the want of figs and gooſeberries, currants and plums; and lamented that the peripatetic muſicians had been overlooked, and particularly that ingenious performer who executes ſo many difficult airs on his chin. It was alſo ſuſpected, from the total omiſſion of *organs*, and other inſtrumental muſic, that the publiſher muſt be an enemy to the polite arts; but this we deem illiberal. As to the critics of the kitchen, while they deplored the marked neglect of ballads, dying ſpeeches, and letters from

ſweet-

ſweethearts, which they thought very much in the publiſher's line, they objected, at the ſame time, with ſome warmth, to the omiſſion of "hot grey peaſe", "ſprats", and "gallantee-ſhow", which they further obſerved might have been as proper ſcreens for churches and ſquares as the publiſher's "dogs' meat", or even his "hot loaves".

Theſe objections, whatever may be our private opinion, we thought it our duty to lay before this hiſtorian of wheelbarrows and duſt-carts, as they have been made by perſons well qualified to judge, and indeed by the only perſons who can be expected to derive either amuſement or edification from a work of this kind.

ART. IX. *An Introduction to Muſic: in which the elementary Parts of the Science, and the Principles of Thorough Baſs and Modulation, as illuſtrated by the Muſical Game and Apparatus, are fully and familiarly explained, with copious Examples: together with a Deſcription of the Apparatus, compleat Directions for playing the ſeveral Games, with introductory and additional Games, illuſtrating the different Cliffs. On a Plan entirely new. By Anne Gunn, (late Young.)* 8vo. 276 pp. 7s. Edinburgh printed; Preſton, No. 97, Strand. 1803.

ON a former occaſion we announced this work, and our intention of reviewing it*; but, as the games and their peculiarities have been already analyſed; and as, in addition to what we have there advanced, we are perfectly convinced of the danger of attempting to convey uſeful knowledge without labour, we ſhall refer our readers to that account, and confine our remarks to the preſent work as an Introduction to Muſic. Some variations and additions to the games are indeed given; and the Preface contains a ſatisfactory account of Mrs. Gunn's ingenious invention. Theſe additions we ſhall ſlightly notice, as a ſupplement to the former review of her ſcheme.

An Introductory Game is firſt given, in four Parts.

1. The ſignatures of the major keys, as far as ſix ſharps and ſix flats. 2. The ſame extended from ſeven to twelve ſharps and twelve flats. 3. The ſignatures of the minor keys, as far as ſix ſharps and ſix flats. 4. The ſame extended from ſeven

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* Vol. xxi. p. 44.

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to twelve ſharps and flats. The firſt and third Parts are called common ſignatures. The ſecond and fourth uncommon ſignatures.

Game I. On Signatures.

Game II. On various Cliffs. This Game is quite new, and conſiſts of three Parts; theſe are, however, too long to be fully deſcribed in a periodical publication; but they are well calculated to bring the neglected cliffs of ſoprano, counter tenor, and tenor into familiar uſe.

Game III. On Muſical Intervals.

Part 1. Intervals upon the clavier or key-board. Part 2. Intervals upon the ſtave.

Game IV. On Cadences.

Game V. On the Rule of Octave.

Part 1. On the major ſcale. Part 2. On the minor ſcale.

Game VI. Reſolution of Diſcords. Part 2. Reſolution of chords by licence.

Game VII. On Modulation.

Part 1. Modulation in the major mode. Part 2. Modulation in the minor mode. Part 3. Modulation in both modes. All theſe games are intermixed with the Introduction to Muſic; which we have now the opportunity of inveſtigating with clearneſs and preciſion, unencumbered with the games, which can only illuſtrate the doctrine when played by the ſcholar.

Before we diſmiſs this ſubject, we muſt inform the reader, that a copper-plate, exhibiting the game tables and drawer, is given as a frontiſpiece.

The Introduction to Muſic conſiſts of ten Chapters, under the following titles.

I. Of the Clavier or Key Board. II. Of the Notation of Muſic. III. Of Time. IV. Of Intervals. V. Of the Scale and Syſtem of Modulation. Then follow the three firſt games above-mentioned. VI. Of Chords. VII. Of Cyphering, and the Inverſion of Chords. Of Cadences. VIII. On the Rule of Octave, or Harmony of major or minor Scales. IX. Reſolution of Diſcords. X. Chords by Licence.

To thoſe who are converſant with muſical theory it will readily appear, that the three firſt chapters relate to *notation;* the two next, of intervals, and of the ſcale to *melody;* and the five laſt, of chords, cyphering, rule of octave, reſolution of diſcords and chords, by licence, to *harmony*.

The Introduction is divided, all the way through, into articles or paragraphs, numbered regularly from 1 to 155; and thus diſtinguiſhed from thoſe parts of the book which relate to the games excluſively. For the convenience of thoſe who

may wiſh to conſult it as a muſical treatiſe, it may be obſerved, that from page 1 to 77 contains the firſt 5 Chapters, of 70 Articles; from page 135 to 165, contains the 6th and 7th Chapters, Art. 71 to 109; from page 177 to 186 contains the 8th Chapter, Art. 110 to 118; from page 193 to 202 contains the 9th Chapter, Art. 119 to 135; from page 207 to 227 contains the 10th Chapter, Art. 136 to 156; and that theſe parts may be peruſed without any attention to the intervening pages, as they form a complete ſyſtem of muſic, including all the modern novelties.

The firſt elementary chapters are well written. The ſcale of muſic is divided into octaves, commencing from F, and thus diſtinguiſhed; the high treble octave by Italic ſmall letters, *f g a*; the treble octave by Roman ſmall letters, f g a; the tenor octave by Italic capitals, *F G A*; the baſs octave by Roman capitals, F G A; the double baſs octave by double capitals, FF GG. This is an ingenious method; but, like the *other* ſchemes of literal notation, defective; from the gamut of Guido, in which the ſeptenaries, or ſeries of ſeven ſounds, began with A, to the German tablature, in which they begin with C, not forgetting that of Charles Butler, in 1636, which commences with G.

The defect of Mrs. Gunn's ſcheme (which is ſimilar to that of Mr. Holden, in reſpect to Italic letter, but differs in this, that his commences, like Guido's, with A) is, that the baſs cliff is in the tenor octave; and indeed ſo various are the ideas of muſical limits, eſpecially to the notes of the tenor, that no preciſe arrangement will ever be complete; and this ariſes from the vicinity of the three cliffs, F, C, and G. We ſhall paſs over the reſt of the three firſt chapters, and preſent the public with the following intelligence concerning their contents, from a note, p. xviii. of the Preface, where, after mentioning Mr. Holden's Eſſay towards a rational Syſtem of Muſic, the author ſays,

"This excellent work, which has never been ſo generally known as it deſerves, and which, from being out of print, has for many years ceaſed to be in the view of the public, is now reprinting at Edinburgh, by C. Stewart and Co.; and, in the mean time, a ſheet of it is given with each Number of the Vocal Magazine, publiſhed there by J. Sibbald. The deſcription of the time characters of muſic, given in paragraphs 19, 20, 21, and 22 of the ſecond chapter of this work, with the illuſtrative examples, are moſtly tranſcribed from that book, and may ſerve as ſpecimens of the clearneſs and accuracy of the author's ſtatements." P. xviii.

Chapter IV. Of Intervals.

Mrs. Gunn very properly diſtinguiſhes between *Degree* and *Interval*, calling the notes by the former name, and the diſtances between them by the latter.

The

The old queſtion of the 4th being a concord or a diſcord is thus properly decided in a note.

" Some muſical theoriſts do not allow the perfect 4th to be a concord; becauſe, in the compoſition of muſic, it ſometimes *calls* to be reſolved, which they conſider as the characteriſtic of a diſcord. The ſame thing, however, may be occaſionally affirmed of the perfect 8ve, and perfect 5th. The perfect 4th, conſidered in itſelf, and independent of the particular ſituation in which it may occaſionally be found, in a muſical compoſition, is undoubtedly a concord." P. 41.

Another remark, p. 48, alſo ſhows that Mrs. G. is orthodox in her opinions of theory, and agrees with Dr. Pepuſch concerning the minor ſemitone.

" As the terms major and minor, when applied to all the other intervals, expreſs the difference of a ſemitone, it would be more conſiſtent with preciſion, that in every caſe they ſhould be uſed to expreſs that difference. Although it is certain, in theory, that C C ſharp is a ſmaller interval than C ſharp D; yet, in the compoſition and practice of muſic, for keyed inſtruments, all the ſemitones of the clavier are uſed, as if they were of equal extent; and C C ſharp, which is called a minor ſemitone, is ſounded by the very ſame finger keys with C D flat, which is called a major ſemitone."

An engraved muſic plate, No. III. p. 50, of Intervals and their Inverſions, is given, ſimilar to that which we preſented to the public, vol. xxi. p. 42, as taken from her former work.

Chapter V. Of the Scale, p. 53.

The diviſion of the octave into tetrachords, the nature of tranſpoſition, and modulation, are all very accurately explained. The following note, on the minor ſcale, is intereſting.

" The form of the minor ſcale aſcending and deſcending, above deſcribed, is according to the rule of the older muſicians. In the works of the later compoſers, the ſuperfluous 2d frequently occurs, both in conſonance and ſucceſſion; and, as the ears of muſicians are thus familiarized to it, we may, in playing the minor ſcale, retain the proper 6th of that ſcale, viz. the minor 6th, or ſemitone above the 5th, while at the ſame time we uſe the major 7th, or take for that degree the ſemitone below the 8ve; and we may play it in this manner *deſcending* as well as *aſcending*. The minor ſcale of A, when played in this manner, will conſiſt of the following notes, viz. A * B C * D * E F ** G ſharp A. This form of the minor ſcale may, for the ſake of diſtinction, be called the minor ſcale of the moderns." P. 67.

Thus far we proceed with the firſt part of the work, which we paſs rather haſtily over, that we may have leiſure and room to enter fully into the harmonical doctrines of this *ingenious author*.

Chapter VI. Of Chords, p. 135.

After deſcribing the nature of major and minor chords, the doctrine of *cadences* is thus clearly laid down, in art. 74, 75, 76.

" 74. The moſt pleaſing ſucceſſion of chords is when the baſs moves upwards or downwards, by the leap of a perfect 4th or perfect 5th, or in other words, when the fundamental of the following chord is a 4th or a 5th above or below that of the preceding chord. Such movements have been termed *Cadences*, and are the proper and natural fundamental progreſſions in muſic. The fundamental alſo moves to the 6th above, or the 3d below, and theſe movements may be reverſed. There are alſo ſome caſes in which the fundamental moves a 2d upwards, but it more rarely moves a 2d downwards.

" 75. When the fundamental of a chord is a perfect 4th above, or a perfect 5th below, that of the preceding chord, the ſucceſſion is named *a regular Cadence*. This is the moſt pleaſing and ſatisfactory of all progreſſions, and is the laſt in every piece of regular muſic, forming the final cloſe. When this movement is reverſed, or when the fundamental riſes a 5th, or falls a 4th, to that of the preceding chord, the ſucceſſion is called an *irregular Cadence*.

" 76. The fundamental of a chord ſeldom riſes a ſingle degree, or to the 2d above that of the preceding chord, except in the two following caſes. 1ſt. The chord of dominant, or the 5th of the key, is ſometimes ſucceeded by that of the 6th. This is called the falſe, the interrupted, or diſappointing Cadence; as, when it occurs, the hearer is generally led by the ſtrain of the muſic to expect a cloſe upon the key, formed by a regular cadence, or that the chord of the 5th ſhould be ſucceeded by the chord of the key, and therefore feels a diſappointment. 2dly. The chord of the 4th may be ſucceeded by the chord of the 5th. This is called the *ſtep* or *gradation* of the 4th, and is of very frequent occurrence in muſic.

" The firſt chord of each of theſe ſucceſſions may be called the *leading* or *antecedent* chord; and the other, the *following* or *conſequent* chord." P. 137.

Theſe are the perfect and imperfect cadences of the moderns, with the falſe cadence of Rameau, and the mixed cadence of Tartini. We made ſome obſervations on this ſubject before, vol. xvi. p. 393, xvii. 520.

After deſcribing the dominant harmony, its diſcord and their inverſions, the theory of the added ſixth, concerning which we inſerted our opinion in vol. xxi. p. 43, is reſumed.

" 82. The chord of 4th, or ſubdominant, whether in the major or the minor mode, may have the 6th to its fundamental added. This 6th, which is always major, is the 2d of the ſcale. It may be added to the chord when ſtanding in any of its three poſitions. Hence the chord may have four different poſitions, or arrangements of its notes, as ſhewn at Plate VIII. No. 3. in the chord of F, the 4th of the ma-

jor

jor ſcale of C. It has been called the diſcordant harmony of the ſubdominant.

" 83. The only diſcording interval which appears in this chord, is that of major 2d, ſubſiſting betwixt the 5th of the chord and the added 6th, or *C* and *D*, the key and 2d of the ſcale. This diſcord of 2d is in the 3d poſition of the chord, inverted into a minor 7th. If now, *D*, the loweſt note of that poſition, be conſidered as the fundamental of the chord, the intervals to it will be f, minor 3d; a, perfect 5th; and c, a minor 7th.—This chord therefore may be conſidered as having two fundamentals; as two of its notes have a 3d, and perfect 5th among its intervals. Theſe are the 4th of the ſcale, in which the diſcord is the added 6th; and the 2d of the ſcale, in which the diſcord is an added 7th. To this laſt, the term ſubdominant chord, has by ſome authors been appropriated; and it has been called the minor chord of the 7th; as the dominant chord, above treated of, has been named the major chord of the 7th." P. 144.

Here Mrs. Gunn adopts the opinion of Heck, who, in his Treatiſe on Thorough Baſs, expreſsly aſſerts the chord D, F, A, C, to be compounded of the two chords of D and of F.

The doctrine of double fundamentals is not new, it was firſt introduced by the ingenious Mr. Serre, of Geneva*, and thence adopted by Holden, in 1770; but after all that can be ſaid in its favour, it is more plauſible than important. Mr. Serre himſelf admits, that of two fundamentals, one is always predominant; and what reaſon is there then to conſider the other more than an added ſound?

But it is not *theoretically* true, that two of the notes have a 3d and perfect 5th among their intervals. The D harmony has a third deficient by a comma, and a fifth equally defective. The ratio from D to F is 32 : 27, and not 6 : 5, and from D to A. 40 : 27 and not 3 : 2. Mrs. G. ſeems to admit this by implication, for in enumerating the notes of the ſcale which bear perfect chords, the tonic, 5th, 4th, 3d, and 6th, are mentioned (art. 72) but not the 2d. Yet it is ſaid at the beginning of the article, that every note of the ſcale, except the ſeventh, may bear a perfect chord.

In the minor mode, all obſcurity is cleared away, and the queſtion (we conceive) entirely decided. Mrs. Gunn obſerves on this ſubdominant with the added ſixth:

" 84. At Plate VIII. No. 4. are ſhewn the different poſitions of a chord of 4th, with added 6th, in the minor mode, the fundamental of which is D, the 4th of the minor ſcale of A. Here, beſides the diſcord of the 2d, or its inverſion the 7th, ſubſiſting between the 5th

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* Dr. Burney's Hiſtory, vol. iv. p. 636.

and

and the added note of the chord, or the tonic and 2d of the ſcale, we find the diſcord of tritone, or its inverſion the falſe 5th, ſubſiſting between f and b, the minor 3d and added 6th of the chord, which notes are reſpectively the minor 6th and 2d of the ſcale. The third poſition has the form of a chord of 3d, 5th, and 7th, to the loweſt note *B*. And accordingly this note, the 2d of the ſcale, has by ſome muſicians been accounted the fundamental of the ſubdominant chord, in the minor as well as in the major mode, although not with equal propriety, as the 5th is not perfect." P. 145.

Our remarks concerning Mercadier de Beleſta, vol. xxi. p. 43, are here confirmed by Mrs. G.'s doctrine.

" 85. When the chord of the 4th, with added 6th, paſſes into the chord of the 5th, which is its moſt uſual and natural progreſſion, its 5th, the key note, falls a ſemitone to the ſenſible note, or the 3d to the ſucceeding chord; while the added 6th remains, and becomes 5th of the ſucceeding chord. The diſcord of 2d or 7th, which ſubſiſted betwixt theſe notes, is thus reſolved. The 3d of the leading chord may either fall to the 8ve of the ſucceeding chord, or riſe to its 3d. The 8ve of the leading chord moſt properly falls to the 5th of the ſucceeding chord. Thoſe progreſſions are ſhewn, both in the major and in the minor mode" Ib.

The ſucceſſion of the two diſcords of the ſubdominant and dominant, are thus properly deſcribed :

" 86. When the chord of the 5th, ſucceeding the chord of the 4th, with added 6th, has its 7th added; two of the notes of the chord of 4th, viz. the 6th and 8th, are continued, and become reſpectively 5th and 7th in the ſucceeding chord. The other two notes of the chord of 4th, move each diatonically downwards, or to the next degrees of the ſcale below. Theſe progreſſions are ſeen in the preludes, or muſical phraſes, at Plate xi. No. 3, 4, and latter diviſion of No. 5. Notes which are thus held or continued from one chord to another, are called *ties* or *bindings*." P. 146.

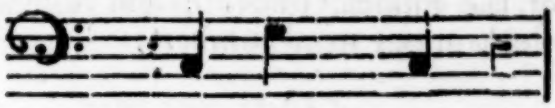
Chapter vii. p. 147. Of Cyphering, &c.

We are inclined to notice an impropriety in Mrs. G. in uſing the word *ſenſible* as a tranſlation, or rather adoption of the French term, which is inapplicable in our language. *Leading* note is the proper expreſſion, and we never wiſh to ſee the other word uſed in any claſſical work upon muſic, p. 157, art. 99. Mrs. Gunn here gives the inverſions of the ſubdominant with the added 6th, but although they appear well upon paper, yet one of them is particularly harſh, namely, that on A, with 6, 4, 3.

The concluding paſſage of this part contains ſome very important doctrines, which we have never ſeen before ſo well expreſſed.

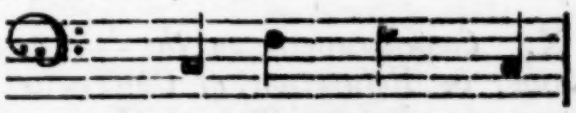
" 103. The chords explained in this and the preceding Chapter, are of the moſt extenſive uſe and application in muſic. There are many muſical compoſitions in which no others occur; and perhaps *there are few real chords in muſic, which are not either* PERFECT *chords or to be referred to the claſs of* DOMINANT *or of* SUBDOMINANT *chords, although they may be diſguiſed by ſuſpending or altering one or more of the notes.* It is of great importance, therefore, that they be well underſtood and diligently practiſed in every key, major and minor. There are two kinds of leſſons or exerciſes, which are frequently preſcribed for this purpoſe. The firſt is to play certain ſhort harmonical ſucceſſions, or muſical phraſes, which are ſometimes named Cadences, and which are often uſed as preludes, for the purpoſe of announcing the key and mode of the piece which is to be performed. The ſecond is to play the chords or accompaniments which are moſt commonly given to baſs notes, when they aſcend or deſcend diatonically, or by the degrees of the ſcale. In the firſt, the chords are commonly in their erect forms; in the ſecond, ſome of them muſt neceſſarily be in inverted forms." P. 159.

We are not only heartily inclined to ſubſcribe to this theory, but are convinced by long ſtudy and experience, that all chords are reducible to the tonic, dominant, or ſubdominant, with ſome ſlight exceptions in the caſe of ſequences and licences: and, even in theſe, one of thoſe three above-mentioned is generally implied, if not decidedly audible. The *firſt* kind of exerciſe preſcribed in the laſt article, conſiſts of the following cadences or phraſes (p. 161). The *firſt harmonical ſucceſſion* conſiſts of the chord of the tonic, proceeding by irregular cadence to the dominant, and returning by regular cadence to the tonic, thus:

No. I. 

The dominant harmony may either be perfect, or its *ſeventh may be added.*

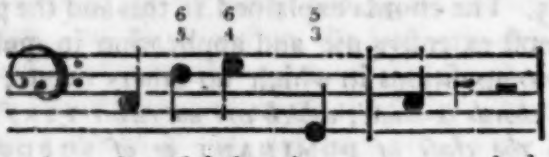
The *ſecond* contains the ſubdominant chord, inſerted betwen the tonic and dominant, thus:

No. II. 

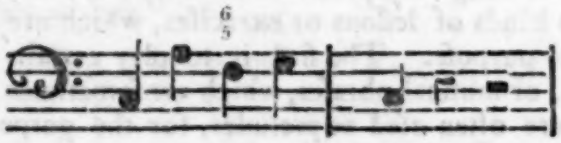
The ſubdominant may have its added ſixth, and the dominant its added ſeventh, or they may both remain perfect.

The *third* contains the tonic chord held on the dominant, in the inverted form of the ſixth and fourth, commonly called the ſixth and fourth cadence, which afterwards proceeds to the proper chord of the dominant, with or without the ſeventh, thus:

No.

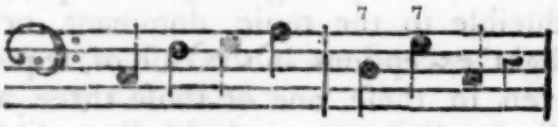
No. III. 

The *fourth* contains the ſubdominant, preceded by the ſixth, and followed by the dominant in *gradation*, with or without its ſeventh.

No. IV. 

The ſubdominant, however, may remain perfect, and omit its added ſixth.

The *fifth* is intended to ſhow the falſe cadence or progreſſion of the dominant into the ſixth of the ſcale, on the laſt note of the firſt bar. In the ſecond bar the ſtrain is brought to a cloſe, by the gradation and regular cadence, that is, by the ſucceſſion of the chords of ſubdominant, dominant, and tonic, thus:

No. V. 

"For the ſake of variety", adds Mrs. G. "the ſubdominant chord is here taken in, what we have called its third inverſion, or what by many is conſidered as its erect form."

As theſe are to be practiſed in all keys (major and minor) and in all poſitions, we ſhall recommend them to the attentive notice of the muſical ſtudent; and reſume the conſideration of this work in our next number.

(To be continued.)

ART. X. *Conſiderations on the late and preſent State of Ireland; in Refutation of Obſervations and Reflections thereon, by Robert Stearne Tighe, Eſq. of Mitchell's Town, in the County of Weſtmeath: and on "a Letter to the Earl of Wycomb, from Mr. Miles, on the preſent State of Ireland."* 8vo. 54 pp. Mahon, Dublin. 1804.

IT may be neceſſary to inform our readers, that Mr. Tighe, in his pamphlet, ſtrongly recommends Catholic emancipation, as it is termed, the modification of tithes, and a proviſion for the Roman Catholic prieſthood, as the certain and only

only political remedies for the diſeaſed ſtate of the body politic in Ireland.

The author of the pamphlet now before us, accuſes Mr. Tighe of being radically ignorant of the true ſtate of that truly vital part of the empire; and as Mr. Tighe candidly declares in his firſt page, that he was abſent from Ireland nearly twenty years previous to 1800, when the incorporate union of the countries took place, it is not impoſſible that (like thoſe practitioners of phyſic, who preſcribe for their patient at a diſtance by inſpecting their urine) he may have miſtaken the remedies proper for the diſeaſes of his *feveriſh ſtate patient*.

"It is much to be lamented", obſerves the writer of Conſiderations, &c. "that the government of England has been moſt egregiouſly deceived as to the ſtate of Ireland, by men who are totally ignorant of it, or by perſons who are led by ſiniſter deſigns to impoſe on them; in his third page, Mr. Tighe ſpeaks of the ſteady and impartial line of conduct adopted and purſued by the Earl of Hardwicke, and he ſays, "he truſts his countrymen will ever entertain a proper ſenſe of the temper, moderation, and humanity, which have marked his Excellency's character"; I would aſk Mr. Tighe how it has happened, that all theſe excellent qualities, and the conciliating diſpoſition of the preſent Viceroy, and I may add of his predeceſſor, have not in the ſmalleſt degree abated the deep-rooted diſaffection of the Romaniſts, which like a ſmouldering fire, is ever ready to be blown into a blaze by the breath of accident?" P. 4.

In ſupport of this reaſoning, among other incidents, this writer adduces, "the cataſtrophe which occurred on the 23d of July, 1803, which burſt forth when a deluſive calm prevailed."

"Government", he adds, "tacitly acknowledge their apprehenſions of ſimilar events, by the ſalutary precaution which they have adopted for above a year, and which they continue at this time, of having the ſtreets of the metropolis perambulated in the night by patroles of cavalry." Ibid.

This writer next ſtates,

"that ſince the arrival of Lord Hardwicke in Ireland, the Committee or Directory now ſitting in Dublin, have ſent two embaſſadors to Paris, and they continue to maintain an alliance with the French, which began ſo early as the year 1744."

"Notwithſtanding", he obſerves, "all theſe alarming circumſtances, Mr. Tighe tells us in his fourth page, that this is a favourable opportunity, to enter upon what is called by the vulgar and ignorant *Catholic emancipation*." P. 5.

In

In anſwer to an aſſertion of Mr. Tighe, that

" during theſe four years the independent gentry of Ireland have ſeen, without a murmur, themſelves and their families excluded from a fair competition in the ſervice of their country in church and ſtate; and ſhall it be ſaid, that the promiſes to the Iriſh nation are alone unacquitted ?" This writer very properly obſerves, that " this aſſertion is totally unfounded, and it muſt have a very evil tendency in exciting jealouſy and diſcontent in the breaſts of the Iriſh, of whom many of the nobility and gentry fill ſome (he ought to have ſaid *moſt*) of the moſt important ſituations in church and ſtate."

" If he alludes to the excluſion of the Romaniſts from the high and confidential departments of the ſtate, he will find that every Proteſtant ſtate in Europe found themſelves under the neceſſity of doing ſo for their preſervation; and it was adopted by the deliberate wiſdom of the Britiſh legiſlature, after long and woeful experience of the deſtructive principles of Popery. Now I would aſk Mr. Tighe, whether the events of the laſt twenty years in Ireland furniſh any proof whatſoever, that they are in the ſmalleſt degree ameliorated ?" P. 6.

From the 8th to the 12th page, the author endeavours to prove, that the tenets of the Romiſh Church, from its pretended infallibility, never can undergo any alteration; and, conſequently, that the religious and political principles of its votaries cannot receive or admit of any amelioration; in ſupport of this poſition, he quotes the canonical oath, which every prieſt takes upon his ordination, in which " *he promiſes to receive and profeſs the ſacred canons and general councils particularly that of Trent*", which recognizes and ſanctions all the impious doctrines of the fourth Lateran council; and he alſo promiſes " to condemn, reject, and anathematize all things contrary thereto, and all hereſies which the church has condemned, rejected, and anathematized." P. 9. And to prove that theſe doctrines and opinions are not obſolete, but that they are recognized and maintained, *at this moment*, by lay as well as clerical Roman Catholics, he quotes the writings of Mr. Francis Plowden, the Rev. Charles Plowden, and of Dr. Troy, the preſent titular Archbiſhop of Dublin.

" Mr. Francis Plowden, a great champion of Popery in England at preſent, ſays, in a work entitled the Caſe ſtated, and publiſhed in London in 1791, that " the Roman Catholics admit the decrees of a general council in matters of faith and *morality*, when approved of by the Pope and received by the Church, to be abſolutely infallible, and not liable to deceit or error."

" His brother, the Rev. Charles Plowden, goes a ſtep farther, for in a treatiſe publiſhed by him in 1790, he maintains and contends for the infallibility of the Pope, and aſſerts, that " *it is as neceſſary for the conſtitution of the church, and the preſervation of faith, as the infalli-*

bility

bility of councils themſelves", it is entitled, "Conſiderations on the modern Opinion of the Fallibility of the Holy See."

"Dr. Troy, titular Archbiſhop of Dublin, tells us in his famous paſtoral inſtruction, publiſhed there in 1793, that "the church is infallible in her doctrinal deciſions and canons on points of faith and *morals*, and therefore Catholics are obliged to adhere implicitly to ſuch decrees and canons of the church aſſembled in general councils, and confirmed by the Pope, as rules of faith."

"Now the reader will find, that the following doctrines are maintained and enjoined by ſome general councils as a religious duty to all Roman Catholics. To depoſe and murder heretical Sovereigns, whenever they have it in their * power to do ſo; that an † oath of allegiance to an heretical ſtate is null and void, and not binding on their conſcience; that no fidelity is due from a popiſh wife to an heretical huſband, nor ‡ from a ſervant to a maſter; they are alſo ordered to extirpate heretics whenever they are able to do ſo, for which they are offered eternal ſalvation."

"Theſe odious and deteſtable principles of their religion are inceſſantly infuſed into the popiſh multitude by their prieſts, becauſe they are bound by their canonical oath, and by their general councils, to do ſo; and for this reaſon they differ as much, in point of moral principle, from all the other members of the Chriſtian Church in the Britiſh empire, as the Malays do from all the other inhabitants of the Eaſt."

Yet, notwithſtanding what this writer ſo forcibly ſtates to be the well-known doctrines of the Church of Rome, notwithſtanding the recognition and avowal of them, in our own times, by their lay and eccleſiaſtical guides, and in ſpite of dear-bought experience, we meet with political free-thinkers (or rather no-thinkers) who inſiſt, that the diffuſion of knowledge, and the improvement of reaſon, have abated thoſe dangerous doctrines of the Church of Rome. Now it is not a little extraordinary, that *Proteſtant* writers on that ſide ſhould inſiſt and maintain, that ſuch a deſirable alteration has taken place, when we find that ſome of the moſt eminent Catholic writers and controverſialiſts diſclaim moſt vehemently all imputation of ſuch a change. "If", ſays Mr. Francis Plowden, in his

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* Hereticos non eſſe bello petendos quando fortiores ſunt nobis. *Bellarmine.*

† Thouſands of the Roman Catholic inhabitants of the County of Wexford took the oath of allegiance before the rebellion in 1798, and afterwards fought againſt the King's troops. *Rev.*

‡ The numerous inſtances of the treachery and infidelity of Roman Catholic ſervants to their Proteſtant maſters, which occurred in Ireland before and during the rebellion in 1798, are too notorious to be controverted. *Rev.*

Caſe

Caſe ſtated, "any one ſays, or pretends to inſinuate, that the modern Roman Catholics, who are the late objects of the bounty of Parliament, differ in one iota from their anceſtors he either deceives himſelf, or he wiſhes to deceives others. *Semper eadem* is more emphatically deſcriptive of our religion than of our juriſprudence"! Dr. Troy alſo ſays, in his Pastoral Letter already quoted, "the religious principles of Roman Catholics *being unchangeable*, are applicable to all times." P. 12.

Semper eadem!! Popery always the ſame! We are ſorry for it. At the ſame time we muſt acknowledge, there is a great candour in the avowal, as obſtinacy and ſtupidity in the *Proteſtant* advocates to maintain the contrary, after ſuch unequivocal declarations.

"All their moſt learned divines", ſays the author of this pamphlet, "unanimouſly agree, that their principles muſt ever be unalterable from the infallibility of their general councils; and we learn from hiſtory, that their principles, *even when the Iriſh Romaniſts enjoyed all the benefits and privileges of the Conſtitution, unceaſingly produced treaſonable combinations, rebellions, and maſſacres.*"*

The author then proceeds to ſhow, that neither Catholic emancipation, as it is called, or the modification or abolition of tithes, can produce any change in the political ſentiments or meliorate the condition, of the great body of the Roman Catholics of Ireland. Upon the former topic, in addition to his own arguments, he appeals to the declaration of Lord Fingal, in his Letter to the Iriſh Chancellor. "Thoſe moſt affected by the remaining reſtrictions (alluding to the Roman Catholic nobility and gentry, who are but very few in number) it is well known, have never excited clamour or tumult, but have been always foremoſt in oppoſing them."† He next quotes the evidence upon oath of M'Nevin and Emmet, before the Houſe of Lords in Ireland,

"that the maſs of the people in Leinſter, Munſter, and Connaught cared not the value of this pen, or the drop of ink it contained, for Catholic emancipation or parliamentary reform: they both acknowledged that ſeparation (from England) was the main object of the conſpirators."

On the ſubject of tithes, in reply to Mr. Tighe's ſuggeſtion of the neceſſity of conſidering "how far it may be wiſe and

* Forty-ſeven Catholic members of the Iriſh Parliament, in 164[illegible] were expelled the Houſe or attainted, for being concerned in, or privy to, O'Neil's rebellion and maſſacre in that year. *Rev.*

† Lord Fingal's Letter.

pra[illegible]

practicable to accompany the meaſure (Catholic emancipation) by ſome mode of relieving the lower orders from the preſſure of tithes, which in many inſtances operate at preſent as a practical evil"; this writer anſwers:

"It is univerſally well known, that the terre tenants or farmers do not pay more at preſent to the clergy than about the twentieth. If tithes were ſold, they would be purchaſed by the proprietors of the land, who would make them pay a tenth, or perhaps more.*"

"Mr. Emmet declared upon oath, before the Secret Committee of the Houſe of Lords, "I am very ſure if tithes were aboliſhed, the people on taking new leaſes would be obliged *to pay more in proportion* for lands than the value they now pay for tythes." P. 18.

The anonymous author, whoſe excellent pamphlet we are reviewing, then proceeds "to lay before the reader ſome conſiderations on the ſtate of Ireland, with reſpect to her internal ſtate and external relations"; and here he points out the great impediments which exiſt in Ireland to the execution of criminal juſtice, from the odium which any perſon incurs who proſecutes a delinquent, how atrocious ſoever his crime may be". He ſtates, that the Government of Ireland is obliged to remove *informers* from their own neighbourhood, leſt they ſhould be aſſaſſinated, and to provide for them in ſome other part of the kingdom. He adds, that no criminal can be executed in Ireland without the aid of a large military force to prevent a reſcue; and appeals to the judges and magiſtracy of Ireland for the truth of his ſtatement: and this ſpirit of reſiſtance to the laws, he ſays, "ariſes from the deep-rooted and rancorous hatred which the popiſh multitude bear to the laws and conſtitution of a heretical ſtate, with which they are inſpired by their clergy from their infancy with unceaſing ſedulity." P. 19.

Another material impediment to the execution of the laws he ſtates to be, "the total diſregard of the multitude to the ſacred obligation of an oath; and this is an evil which is inſeparable from Popery under a Proteſtant ſtate"†. He ſtates

* It is a fact of general notoriety, that thoſe lands in Ireland which are tithe-free (of which there are many large tracks in every province) are let at a conſiderable higher rent than the neighbouring lands of equal goodneſs which happen to be ſubject to tithes.

† There is hardly ever an inſtance of a criminal of the Roman Catholic religion convicted of a crime againſt the ſtate, who will confeſs his guilt at the gallows; they all declare, at the place of execution, "*that they die innocent*". Emmet and Ruſſel, who were Proteſtants, confeſſed their guilt before their execution; the reſt of their aſſociates (one excepted, as we have been informed) declared that they died innocent! *Rev.*

that

that Spenſer the poet, who was Secretary to Lord Grey, Vice-roy of Ireland in Queen Elizabeth's time, in his treatiſe on the ſtate of that country, laments this material impediment to diſtributive juſtice. He then appeals to the circumſtances of the rebellion of 1798, to prove that this evil exiſts as ſtrongly as ever; and aſks the reader, "how Ireland can ever attain any degree of proſperity, when the execution of the laws, on which the preſervation of life, liberty, and property depend, is thus baffled and defeated." Ibid, note.

In conſidering the external relations of Ireland, he ſtates,

"that the debt of Ireland at Lady-Day, 1793*, was but 2,344,324l. and at this time it amounts to fifty-two millions ſterling. This has ariſen from the neceſſity of maintaining a vaſt military force in it, for the ſuppreſſion of popiſh treaſon, and to avert the ill effects of an invaſion of the French, whom the Iriſh have regarded and negotiated with as allies, ever ſince the commencement of their revolution." P. 20.

If the expences of Ireland continue to increaſe in the ſame proportion, as ſhe is only bound by the Union to raiſe two fifteenths of the ſupplies, whilſt we pay the reſt; what an accumulation of the debt of England, will the preſervation of Ireland occaſion in a few years more!

The author of this pamphlet next denies Mr. Tighe's aſſertion, that *emancipation* would effect an annihilation of the religious animoſities of the Iriſh; for our own part, we cannot perceive in what manner the conteſts between Catholic and Proteſtant candidates for ſeats in Parliament, the ſtruggles of the Roman Catholics to obtain an aſcendancy in the corporations, and a contention for the higher employments in the ſtate, can allay religious animoſities; the conſequence (as far as our experience of mankind goes) would be to increaſe the reſentments and the jealouſies of both parties.

Mr. Tighe thinks, emancipation would bring about the attachment of the Roman Catholic clergy to the ſtate"; his opponent diſputes this, and contends, that the dangerous tenets enjoined by their general councils, and the canonical oath already mentioned, which they take at their ordination, render their attachment to a Proteſtant ſtate impoſſible. He ſays,

"In conformity to this oath, the popiſh prieſts have been the chief promoters of all the rebellions which have diſgraced Ireland in our times; and in the 16th and 17th centuries, *before the penal laws were enacted. Nay, while they enjoyed all the church livings and had a ſplendid*

* It was in this year that Catholic emancipation, as it is called, firſt took place. *Rev.*

hierarchy

hierarchy in the reign of Henry the Eighth, they in obedience to the Bull of Pope Paul the Third, renounced their allegiance to their liege Sovereign, and offered their native country to the French King. Now I defy Mr. Tighe to prove, that they ever renounced any of the dangerous tenets of their religion, which have uniformly made them aliens to a Proteſtant ſtate." P. 22.

Here we beg leave to aſk, is the Pope, i. e. is Bonaparte, henceforward to be permitted to diſpoſe of benefices, and to fill up the vacancies in the Catholic titular Biſhoprics in Ireland? We had long felt the evils, and been ſenſible of the dangers of a political *imperium in imperio*, and we were obliged to have recourſe to an union to avert the miſchief with which it was pregnant; and are we content to ſuffer an eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction to exiſt in Ireland, which is not only independent of the ſtate, but at the devotion of a foreign power, and that power the tool of our mortal enemy? Surely, if a proviſion for the Roman Catholic clergy be in the contemplation of government (as has been reported) this important circumſtance will not eſcape their conſideration. To return to the pamphlet before us, Mr. Tighe is confident that emancipation "would produce the improved education and melioration of the ſtate and character of our (the Iriſh) peaſantry."

"Nothing", obſerves his opponent, "can have any material effect in promoting this, except extending the bleſſings of the reformation in Ireland." He ſtates, that "in Dublin, and in moſt of the great towns, the wages of labourers and mechanics are as high as in any part of England, nay, in the former, they are much higher than in London; and yet a treaſonable combination was carried on with the utmoſt ſecrecy for many months in the metropolis in the year 1803, and it exploded on the 23d of July. Moſt of the leaders in it were perfectly independent, and the inferior agents were artiſans, who earned from four to five ſhillings a day. The moſt active inſtruments in the rebellion of 1798, were popiſh prieſts and *country ſchoolmaſters*." P. 23.

He adds;

"Whatever prejudices ambition or any other ſiniſter motives may create in the minds of ſome men on this point, the candid, the impartial, and the well-informed, muſt unite in one opinion, that popery is the principal misfortune which Ireland labours under, and that it never can attain any degree of proſperity, till the bleſſings of the reformation are more extenſively diffuſed in it."

"Having, I hope", ſays the author, "convinced the reader that the advantages, which Mr. Tighe expects from his plan of emancipation, would not be produced from it, I ſhall now endeavour to ſhow the many and great evils which muſt reſult from it, as a neceſſary and inevitable conſequence."

Here then let us ſtrongly and earneſtly recommend the following extracts (we lament that our limits do not admit of more) to the ſerious conſideration of thoſe who, whenever the meaſure of Catholic emancipation ſhall be brought forward, are to decide upon this momentous queſtion; on the iſſue of which the preſent conſtitution in church and ſtate may, and muſt depend.

" That ſtrong ſpirit of proſelytiſm which is peculiar to Popery, and that intemperate zeal which its votaries never fail to exert for the advancement of their religion, has ever had a material influence on their conduct in political concerns.

" That unbounded power which popiſh prieſts have over their flocks, was conſtantly uſed in influencing elections, while their votaries had a right to ſit in parliament. In order to obtain a majority in that aſſembly, previous to the rebellion of 1641, which they had long in contemplation, Lord Strafford tells us in his Letters, that the Popiſh prieſts and Jeſuits gave in charge, from their altars to their flocks, not to vote for a Proteſtant under pain of excommunication; and that they adminiſtered extra-judicial oaths to them in their reſpective chapels for that purpoſe*.

" Thoſe who have reſided any time in the country parts of Ireland, cannot but know the great and dangerous influence which Popiſh prieſts maintain over the multitude, by the terror of excommunication." P. 26.

The author then proceeds to give ſeveral very ſtriking inſtances of their political influence over the multitude in former, as well as in our times, particularly in 1793 to 1798, incluſive. He ſtates, that immediately after the Iriſh Romaniſts had obtained the elective franchiſe, every part of the country " was convulſed by that Popiſh banditti, the Defenders".

" This banditti committed nocturnal robbery and aſſaſſination on the Proteſtants, by which they drove great numbers of them from their habitations in the country, having murdered many of thoſe who dared to make any reſiſtance.

" The object of theſe atrocities was to leſſen the number of Proteſtant freeholders, and to increaſe it in their own order, for the purpoſe of laying members of parliament under obligations to them for their returns, and to make them ſubſervient to their deſigns†, and it has in a great meaſure produced that effect, by which it has given a vital blow to the Proteſtant intereſt.

" If this conceſſion occaſioned ſuch a ſtrong incitement in that body to commit ſuch monſtrous acts of lawleſs turbulence, and to perſecute

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* Letter v. p. 274; ibid. 270, 203, 248.

† Their chief ſupporters and advocates in Parliament now, are thoſe gentlemen who are returned by the Catholic intereſt in the ſeveral counties and towns they repreſent. *Rev.*

the Proteſtants, which they unremittingly did from the year 1793 to the year 1798, incluſive, what dreadful conſequences may not be expected to ariſe from granting them a right to ſit in parliament: they will violate every law to return repreſentatives of their own religion.

"The Popiſh multitude in the country will be organized as White-Boys, Right-Boys, or Defenders, and will hunt the Proteſtants as they have heretofore done from the country, that they may become excluſively the terre-tenants and voters; at preſent this iſland is ſinking under the weight of an expenſive military eſtabliſhment, to preſerve ſocial order, and the neceſſity of it is evident, from the diſcoveries conſtantly made of treaſonable combinations, and of nocturnal meetings of the people, in conſequence of which the civil magiſtrates are obliged to be conſtantly on the alert, and priſoners are frequently brought to the caſtle.

"I will venture to aſſert, that double the army which now exiſts in Ireland muſt be maintained in it, ſhould this privilege be granted, and it will not in the ſmalleſt degree meliorate the condition of the merchants, the farmers, or the mechanics.

"I ſhall now advert to other conſequences which will reſult from it.

"In proceſs of time Popiſh repreſentatives for countries will be returned, and ſome Iriſh gentlemen who are nominally Proteſtants, but are in fact Deiſts, will openly profeſs Popery to ſecure their elections, and to prevent the trouble and expence of a conteſt."

"The elections in corporations will be completely Jacobinical; for as the multitude will claim, and have a right to the elective franchiſe, by birth, ſervitude, marriage, or length of reſidence, the repreſentatives will be returned by a popiſh mob, and the power of the prieſt in his confeſſion-box will ſuperſede and overturn the ſalutary influence of the crown, without which the conſtitution would be completely republican." P. 33.

"This meaſure (Catholic emancipation) will completely jacobinize Ireland, and will ultimately terminate in irremediable anarchy and turbulence.

"In a few years the Iriſh Romaniſts will return eighty members* to parliament, and I am well aſſured by perſons well informed on the ſubject, that the Engliſh will return from fifteen to twenty. But ſuppoſe that the whole amounted to but fifty; they will act as a compact body in concert, for the advancement of their religion, and they will give the moſt unremitting attendance in parliament, which in general is but thinly attended.

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* If we except the ſix great *Proteſtant* counties of the north, the Univerſity of Dublin, and ſix or eight *cloſe* boroughs, the majority of freeholders and electors will be Catholics; they are *now the majority in the counties*, and will be immediately ſo in the corporations, if the oaths of ſupremacy and abjuration are repealed. *Rev.*

" This body, by attaching itſelf to the oppoſition, which it will moſt certainly do, will harraſs and diſtreſs a miniſter ſo much, that he will not be able to maintain his ſituation, unleſs he yields implicitly to their wiſhes; and, as ambition ſeldom fails to make every other conſideration ſubordinate to its own gratification, the Proteſtant ſtate will be overthrown in proceſs of time.

" This meaſure will weaken the ariſtocracy of England, and will give additional weight to the republican faction, which exiſts there at this time, and which has aimed at the ſubverſion of the conſtitution ſome years paſt. Roman Catholics have been conſtantly Republicans under a Proteſtant ſtate, particularly in Ireland. That axiom, that no perſon ſhould ſubmit to the civil inſtitutions of any ſtate unleſs he has directly given his conſent to them, was firſt invented by popiſh ſchoolmen, for the purpoſe of raiſing the papal power above that of Kings; as, by degrading the latter below that of the people, over whom the Romiſh clergy have an unbounded aſcendancy, the court of Rome eſtabliſhed a complete tyranny over both." P. 36.

This writer next proves, from " hiſtory and experience, the only ſure guides to ſtateſmen", the verſatility of the political principles of the Roman Catholics; and that they can crouch to a democracy, when they think it will ſerve their purpoſes, as readily as they yield apparent ſubmiſſion to a monarchy, when they have not ſtrength or opportunity to reſiſt, or to manifeſt their real ſentiments. In ſupport of his poſition that they can crouch to a commonwealth, he inſtances the two addreſſes which the Iriſh Catholics preſented to the Rump Parliament, in 1652, 1653, in which the following paragraph is to be found; " that they did really ſubject, and put *their conſcience, lives, and fortunes, as in a ſanctuary, under the protection of their commonwealth; having ever ſince walked peaceably, and in due conformity to the government, without the leaſt defection therein.*"*

But we need not refer to the ſeventeenth century for proofs of the verſatility of their principles. In our own times, their political aſſociates, M'Nevin, Lord Edward Fitzgerald, and Arthur O'Connor, have crouched to French regicides, and negociated for aſſiſtance from the monſter Robeſpierre†; yet why ſhould we be ſurpriſed at ſuch proceedings, after having

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* The reader ſhould recollect, that they had rebelled againſt the King's government, and maſſacred his Proteſtant ſubjects.

† *Exempli gratia:* M'Nevin's memoir, preſented to the Directory of France; Lord E. Fitzgerald's conference with Gen. Hoche, on the borders of Switzerland; and Mr. A. O'Connor's intended *trip* to France, juſt before his arreſt and trial at Maidſtone; the miſſion of Mr. Lewins to Paris, &c. &c. &c. *Rev.*

been

been aſſured, from *high authority*, that their religion is ſuited to a democracy as well as a monarchy?

We perfectly agree with the able writer of this excellent pamphlet, that

"The following incident tends to make Popery peculiarly dangerous at this time. The order of the Jeſuits was aboliſhed many years ago, by all the Roman Catholic princes in Europe; becauſe, by their ambition, and factious ſpirit of intrigue, they not only diſturbed their ſtates, but formed aſſaſſination plots againſt their lives, wherever they oppoſed that univerſal dominion to which the Pope aſpired."

"The courts of Paris, Madrid, Naples, and Liſbon made repeated and ſtrenuous ſolicitations to Pope Ganganelli to aboliſh the order of Jeſuits in his dominions, as they had done in theirs; but he heſitated, alledging that it had been authentically confirmed by the council of Trent."

"Theſe ſovereigns, dreading a renovation of the evils occaſioned by thoſe malignant incendiaries, if any veſtige of them remained in Europe, threatened to deprive the Pope of his territories, to the very gates of Rome, if he did not entirely aboliſh that order; and, in the year 1773, he was obliged to comply. Though the preſent Pope has reſtored the order of the Jeſuits, not only in his own dominions, but in the kingdom of Naples, whoſe ſovereign had before peremptorily inſiſted on its abolition, not a ſingle prince in Europe has ventured to expreſs his diſapprobation of it, and for this obvious reaſon, that they are afraid of incurring Buonaparte's diſpleaſure. As the Pope is now become an humble and paſſive inſtrument in his hands, we may fairly conclude, that he would not venture to revive the order of the Jeſuits, unleſs he had the ſanction of the French uſurper for ſo doing; and, as it is more than probable that in future they will be *his* Janiſſaries, and not thoſe of his Holineſs, he will be more formidable to the ſafety of ſovereign princes through their agency, than by his armies."

"As the Romaniſts have obtained not only a full toleration of their religion, but have been allowed to erect ſeminaries for the education of popiſh prieſts, both in England and Ireland, Buonaparte will be able, under their ſanction, to maintain as ſpies a great number of theſe deſperate incendiaries in both iſlands; and, as they have been eſtabliſhed under the Council of Trent, which ſtrictly enjoins the votaries of the holy ſee unremittingly to proſtrate hereſy as a religious duty, the reader may conceive what will be the probable conſequence." Pp. 26—40.

With reſpect to the Oath of Supremacy, which, ſince the Iriſh Catholic Bill of 1793, is the only impediment which now exiſts to prevent a Roman Catholic from ſitting in Parliament, and filling the higheſt offices in the ſtate, this moſt forcible writer obſerves:

"This, in fact, is but an oath of allegiance, denying and renouncing the juriſdiction of any foreign prince, which every ſubject

ſhould be required to take before he is permitted to enjoy any places of power or confidence under the government."

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ART. 15. *An Appendix to Practical Obſervations on the Nature and Treatment of the exaſperated Symptoms of the Venereal Diſeaſe. Containing Thoughts on the Nature and Management of the Venereal Bubo, particularly in its obſtinate State. By Edward Geoghegan, Surgeon to the Dublin General Diſpenſary, &c. &c.* 12mo. 44 pp. Gilbert and Hodges, Dublin. 1803.

There are ſome eccentric remarks in this tract. The author has adopted a notion contained in an inaugural theſis of an unpractiſed graduate, who imagined that a ſyphilitic bubo was a critical abceſs. The flow of the virus, he ſuppoſed, was ſtopped by the inflammation of the gland, and entirely diſcharged when it broke; conſequently, that in ſuch caſes, mercury was ſo far from being required, that it was injurious. A caſe or two are narrated to prove this opinion. But it appears clearly, that neither the young doctor, nor Mr. Geoghegan the ſurgeon, are aware, that ulcerations on the prepuce, phymoſis, paraphymoſis, and bubo all occur without any ſyphilitic taint. Theſe complaints were well known even previous to the diſcovery of Columbus. This eaſily explains Mr. Geoghegan's caſes. It muſt indeed be owned, that he appears to have ſome ſlight doubts himſelf, as he ſays, "I have ſome experiments on this ſubject in progreſs, and am not as yet warranted by a ſufficient number of facts to give a decided opinion". It will ſtrike our Engliſh readers as rather odd, that the author ſhould publiſh both his Practical Obſervations and the preſent Appendix before he knew the reſult of his experiments. We venture to predict, however, that as ſoon as they are finiſhed, a Supplement to this Appendix will be diſpatched from Dublin.

In the mean time, he adviſes his profeſſional brethren to make ſimilar experiments. This we deprecate ſtrongly. *Experimentum fiat in vili corpore*, we think carrying philoſophical curioſity too far: beſides, the ſyphilitic poiſon does not render a body permanently vile, ſince we poſſeſs a ſpecific for purifying it.

DIVINITY.

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ART. 16. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Chester, at the primary Visitation, in the Months of July and August, 1804. and published at their Request. By Henry William, Lord Bishop of Chester.* 4to. 32 pp. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons, &c. 1804.

After an appropriate Introduction, on the antiquity and utility of such meetings of the clergy, Bishop Majendie divides the subject of his Charge into two principal heads; the first considering the clergy in a general view, as members of the Church of England, in these particular times; and the second relating to their more particular concerns, as parochial ministers, and specifically in the diocese of Chester.

The Bishop first commends the clergy for the stand which the Church of England pre-eminently has made, in these perilous times, against the principles of anarchy and disloyalty, as well as those of impiety. He then considers the late Acts of Parliament on ecclesiastical affairs, as proofs that the legislature is sensible of their merits, and attentive to their interests. The Residence Bill he considers as intended chiefly to protect the beneficed clergy from vexatious prosecutions, and penalties obtained under harsh statutes. The Act for the relief of those curates who may be dispossessed by the Residence Act, and that for limiting more exactly the age for the admission of Deacons, are the other instances he produces; and he suggests a hope, that still further benefits may be intended.

Under the second head of his Charge, the Bishop states the clergy of the diocese of Chester to be engaged in a particularly important calling, as being employed in a commercial and very populous district. He specifies some cautions resulting from this situation; and then adverts to a few matters, in which parochial discipline appears to want improvement. The increasing custom of baptizing in private houses, instead of in the church (an abuse by much too far extended in the metropolis also) is first noticed. The Bishop then dwells with earnestness and effect on the necessity of catechizing. He enforces the important point of attendance on the Holy Communion; and explains at large the advantage and propriety of private visits and exhortation, from the minister in his parish.

When we add the observation, that these several heads of advice are handled in a judicious and persuasive manner, our readers cannot fail to be convinced, that the Charge now analyzed is one of those in which the true interests of religion are faithfully considered; and the circulation of which must be, therefore, of extensive benefit to the country.

POLITICS.

ART. 17. *Correspondence, in a Series of Letters, between a Gentleman in Berlin and a Person of Distinction in London, from August, 1803, to June, 1804.* 8vo. 190 pp. 5s. Budd. 1803.

The speculations of intelligent individuals on political events, and their opinions respecting the views of Princes and the designs of Cabinets,

nets, are indeed peculiarly intereſting, but peculiarly fallible in the preſent critical ſtate of Europe. It cannot be ſuppoſed, that any perſon not admitted to the councils of ſtateſmen can be accurately informed of their intentions, or penetrate their motives; yet it is ſome advantage to know the ſentiments of perſons on the ſpot; and the principal writer of theſe Letters, though not, in our opinion, an unprejudiced, ſeems to have been an attentive obſerver of the political tranſactions on which he remarks. His chief object, in the firſt of theſe Letters, is to clear the Cabinet of Berlin from the imputation of a tame or corrupt ſubſerviency to France, and to juſtify its acquieſcence in the late invaſion of Hanover. In the laſt of theſe attempts we do not think him ſucceſsful; but we heartily wiſh his opinion on the firſt point may be confirmed by the event. In conſidering the political intereſts of Pruſſia, he lays it down as a maxim, that "while Holland continues ſubject to France, Pruſſia muſt continue the dependant ally of the Republic". He therefore recommends that Holland, whenever it can be reconquered, ſhould be given to the Pruſſian monarch, in order to ſecure his co-operation. In ſubſequent Letters, the writer diſcuſſes (or rather hints at) the cauſes which facilitated the reduction of Hanover; condemns the meaſure, recommended at the commencement of the preſent war, of ſoliciting the mediation of Ruſſia; argues ſtrongly againſt the policy of blockading the Elbe (which always appeared to us to be an act of abſolute neceſſity); exalts, we hope juſtly, the military ſtrength of Denmark, and the wiſdom of her councils; ſtates the motives which influence the conduct of the Auſtrian government; and recommends an alliance with Denmark and Auſtria, the former of which powers might always, with the ſupport of Great Britain, maintain the freedom of the Baltic, "and peace in the North; and the other could preſerve the independence of the Dardanelles, and prevent for ever the co-operation of the powers of France and Ruſſia, the only combination of power the world has to dread." He then notices the pamphlet called "*The Queſtion Why do we go to War*";* ſhowing the abſurdity of ſome of that author's doctrines; but, in his turn, hazarding others, with ſome of which we are not prepared to agree. We particularly condemn the aſſertion, that if Bonaparte had "entered into a mercantile convention with our Board of Trade", there would have been no difficulty about the other points in diſpute; that "Malta would have been given up to a garriſon of the Conſul's ſoldiers in Italian uniforms"; &c. &c. We cannot go theſe lengths; but we think the vindictive proſcription of Britiſh commerce was a very ſtrong proof of hoſtile diſpoſition; and we were amuſed by the "Extracts from a "Memorial and Project of Peace", written by a French Negociator in London, and tranſmitted to Bonaparte in June, 1801"; which the author ſtrongly aſſerts to be authentic, and which certainly has the appearance of being compoſed by an artful enemy of Great Britain; though, on the ſtate of our finances, and ſome other ſubjects, either not well informed himſelf, or deſirous of deceiving his

* See Brit. Crit. Vol. xxiii. p. 209.

employer.

employer. What the writer of this Memorial ſays on the effects of peace upon our navy is, however, in a great degree, juſt; and will deſerve the attention of miniſters, whoever they may be, whenever that event ſhall take place. In order to diſſolve our navy and army, this negociator, it ſeems, recommended peace upon almoſt any terms. His project of peace is alſo curious, but our limits will not permit us to extract it. In the Letters written after the renewal of the war are many ſpecious, and ſome juſt, obſervations. We differ, indeed, very widely from ſome of the opinions hazarded by both theſe writers; but they certainly are the opinions of ſhrewd and inquiſitive men; and, though enforced in rather a dogmatical manner, will often intereſt by their novelty when they do not convince by their juſtice.

ART. 18. *The Official Defence of General Moreau before the Tribunal at Paris, wherein that General's Innocence is moſt fully eſtabliſhed. Tranſlated from the original French, which has been ſuppreſſed in France.* 8vo. 119 pp. 3s. 6d. Longman, &c. 1804.

That this Official Defence of Moreau ſhould have been ſuppreſſed in France, cannot afford matter of ſurpriſe to thoſe who have peruſed it; ſince, in our opinion, it not only "eſtabliſhes the innocence" of that diſtinguiſhed officer, but ſhows, in a very ſtrong point of view, the malicious motive and unfair conduct of the proſecution. Moſt of the counts (as they are here termed) in the charge are not, as it would appear to any reaſonable mind, relevant to the real queſtion; which is, or ought to have been, "whether the accuſed was guilty of a conſpiracy againſt the government of his country then eſtabliſhed, or againſt the life of its chief magiſtrate?" Whatever we may think of that government, undoubtedly General Moreau could not object to its legality. But what ſhall we ſay of a court of juſtice, where ſuch charges as theſe could be preferred by an Attorney-General, or endured for a moment by the court? Firſt count, "*That he was implicated in the year 4 with Pichegru;*" which, as is obſerved in the defence, is as much as to ſay, that the preſent government is to eſpouſe the cauſe of all the ephemeral governments which are paſt; the laſt of which was overturned by thoſe who eſtabliſhed the preſent. It ſeems indeed the groſſeſt abſurdity to ſuppoſe, that the criminal code of the Conſular or Imperial government could apply to offences committed againſt the Directory. Even from this prepoſterous accuſation, the defenders of Moreau endeavour, and not without ſucceſs, to exculpate their client.

The ſecond count, though not quite ſo abſurd in itſelf, is conceived in very looſe terms, and ſeems to have been unſupported by any proof, except that of accomplices, who were probably ſpies, and whoſe teſtimony does not appear to have been corroborated by any other evidence. But, as a ſpecimen of French criminal juſtice, we inſert the *third count*, and the evidence ſtated to have been given in ſupport of it.

"*Promiſes made by Moreau to reinſtate the Princes. Promiſes atteſted by the Rumours current in London.*

"The act of accuſation ſtates, that Rouſſilon had declared that Lajolais had ſaid in London that Moreau, diſcontented with the government of the Firſt Conſul, would lend every aid to overturn it.

" Bouvet ſaid, that Lajolais had confirmed in London, all the expectations that were entertained with reſpect to Moreau; that he had agreed to the plan laid by the princes, and had promiſed that Moreau ſhould preſent the prince to the armies.

" Rochelle declared that, in London, they counted on the aid of Moreau, but he did not ſay that Lajolais had ſpread the report.

" In fine, Roger, if credit is to be given to four ſoldiers who guarded him at the Temple, declared that he has heard it ſaid that Moreau was one of the chiefs of the conſpiracy.

" Several other accuſed perſons have been interrogated before and during the trial, but they have no hearſay evidence to give." P. 63.

This hearſay evidence is, however, examined and refuted by Moreau's counſel. The fourth count (which alledges certain interviews with Pichegru, and other accuſed perſons and propoſitions made and received) has ſomewhat more the appearance of a preciſe and legal accuſation; but the ſuppoſed aſſent of Moreau (even if proved) appears to have been too general and indefinite, to form what we ſhould call *an overt act of treaſon*; and it is attempted to be proved only by witneſſes of the ſuſpicious, or rather infamous, kind which we have deſcribed.

The laſt charge is, that the accuſed General knew of the ſuppoſed conſpiracy, and concealed it. This, by the law of England, would have amounted only to a *miſpriſion*. The defenders of Moreau argue, apparently with great reaſon, that he had not ſufficient knowledge of a conſpiracy to warrant him (according to the French phraſe) in denouncing it; but they alſo ſhow that, by the code of laws now eſtabliſhed in France, " the knowing of a crime and not revealing it" is not an offence.

Such is, in ſubſtance, this accuſation and defence of a celebrated General, and (by all accounts) a reſpectable man in his private life. The defence, though in ſome parts ſpirited, is neceſſarily cramped, and rendered leſs forcible, by the manifeſt fear of offending the tyrannical uſurper; who, in ſeveral paſſages, is complimented in terms of the groſſeſt flattery. The effect is alſo manifeſtly injured by a bald and too literal tranſlation. It is however valuable, even in its preſent dreſs; as it unequivocally ſhows the preſent baſe ſyſtem of the French government, expoſes the arts by which they have fabricated ſo many falſe accuſations againſt individuals in their own country, and againſt the envoys of Great Britain to neutral ſtates; and, by placing in a ſtriking light the iniquity of criminal courts in France, tends the more to endear the impartial laws and unbiaſſed adminiſtration of juſtice, which are the glory of Britain.

ART. 19. *Obſervations on the late and preſent State of Ireland, in Conſiderations on the Correſpondence of Lords Redeſdale and Fingal, and on the Remonſtrance of the Reverend Peter O'Neil, Pariſh Prieſt of Ballymaroda.* 8vo. 2s. Stockdale. 1805.

The author of this pamphlet has given a copious review of the ſtate of Ireland for above two hundred years paſt, and has mentioned ſome ſtriking and intereſting occurrences in the hiſtory of that iſland, accompanied

companied with acute obſervations, which we have not ſeen in any other writer.

He has diſcuſſed, with conſiderable ability, the queſtion of Catholic emancipation, which has ſo much of late engaged the public attention, and which it is ſuppoſed will be ſoon brought before Parliament.

As the public have been moſt egregiouſly deceived and miſled, on this important matter, by various publications, evidently calculated to miſrepreſent it, we recommend to our readers the peruſal of this tract, as the remarks contained in it are deduced from well-eſtabliſhed hiſtoric facts. It alſo mentions ſome intereſting events which occurred in the rebellion of 1798, and in the progreſs of the conſpiracy which preceded it, with pertinent obſervations thereon, which have not appeared before.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. 20. *The Ladies' Diary and the Gentleman's Diary, for* 1805.

We at preſent notice theſe periodical works, which tend to make more mathematicians in this iſland than all the mathematical publications beſides, to expreſs our extreme diſapprobation of the manner in which they are this year preſented to the public. Inſtead of the paper being ſo diſpoſed for the impreſſion, that the poetical and mathematical parts may be bound ſeparately, as it always was diſpoſed before, from their commencement, it is now, from motives of parſimony it ſhould ſeem, ſo folded, that thoſe who have been in the habit of binding the parts in diſtinct volumes can no longer continue that practice, without great trouble to the binder, proportionably additional expence, and entirely ſpoiling the appearance of the book. We therefore moſt earneſtly recommend it to the Company of Stationers to reſume the uſual mode of printing thoſe very agreeable and uſeful publications.

ART. 21. *Popular Tales. By Maria Edgeworth, Author of Practical Education, Belinda, Caſtle Rackrent, Iriſh Bulls, &c. &c. &c. Three Volumes.* 8vo. 15s. Johnſon. 1804.

The public are already under many obligations to Miſs Edgeworth for numerous inſtructive and entertaining publications; and though in this inſtance, the romantic reader may not be ſo ſtrongly intereſted, or the facetious peruſer ſo highly entertained, yet we do not ſcruple to ſay, that for excellence of moral, and juſtneſs of obſervation, the preſent work will certainly claim an equal portion of merit, with any of the author's earlier productions.

We are expreſsly informed in the Preface that "theſe ſtories are adapted to different ages, ſexes, and ſituations in life," and no ſmall degree of ſkill is evinced in the adoption of various ſentiments and opinions; we forbear making any extracts, as to inſert a portion of any one of theſe tales, would be only to excite the curioſity of our readers, which our preſcribed limits will not allow us altogether to ſatisfy.

ART.

ART. 22. *The Book of Trades, or Library of the uſeful Arts. Two Volumes,* 12mo. 7s. Tabaſt. 1804.

Among the numerous productions that have already been offered to the public for the inſtruction and entertainment of young perſons, the preſent may without impropriety claim a prominent ſituation. All the more uſeful branches of trade and manufacture are here explained with much judgment and accuracy, and the ſeveral principles of every common mechanical profeſſion inveſtigated with clearneſs and preciſion.

The following extract, from the account of the Stone-maſon, is no bad ſpecimen of the ſtyle of theſe entertaining and inſtructive volumes.

"There are an indefinite number of different kinds of marbles, and they take their name either from their colour, their age, their country, their degree of hardneſs, or their defects. Some are of one colour only, as black or white; others are ſtreaked, or variegated with ſtains, clouds, and veins; but almoſt all are opake, excepting the white, which, when cut into very thin ſlices and poliſhed, becomes tranſparent. Few natural ſubſtances are leſs underſtood than marble: the people who are accuſtomed to work them know, from experience, and at firſt ſight, that one ſort will receive a high poliſh, that another is eaſily wrought, and a third refuſes the tool; and men of ſcience know little more. Maſons make uſe of ſeveral kinds of ſtone, but *Portland ſtone* is the principal; of this there are vaſt quarries in the iſland of Portland, in Dorſetſhire, from whence it is brought in large quantities to London. It is uſed for building in general, for copings at the tops of houſes, and as ſupports for iron rails, for window-ſills, for ſtone baluſters, for ſteps, and paving where great neatneſs is required. This ſtone is very ſoft when it comes out of the quarry; it works eaſily, and becomes hard by length of time. The piers and arches of Weſtminſter-Bridge are built with it, and ſo is the magnificent Cathedral of St. Paul's. *Purbeck ſtone* comes from an iſland of that name alſo in Dorſetſhire; it is chiefly uſed in paving, ſteps, and other rough work. *Yorkſhire ſtone* is alſo uſed for paving, ſteps, copings, and other purpoſes in which ſtrength and durability are required. There is alſo a ſtone which, when cut into ſlabs, is uſed for hearths, called *Ryegate ſtone*. Stone-maſons make uſe of *mortar*, *plaſter of Paris*, and *tarraſs* for cementing or joining their works. The two former are uſed in dry work, and the latter for bridges and buildings expoſed to the water. Mortar is a compoſition of lime and ſand, mixed to a proper conſiſtency with water. Plaſter of Paris is made by burning a ſtone called gypſum. Tarraſs is a coarſe ſort of plaſter or mortar, durable in wet; it is chiefly uſed to line baſons, ciſterns, wells, and other reſervoirs of water. That which is called Dutch tarraſs is made of a ſoft rock ſtone, found near Collen, on the Rhine; it is burnt like lime, and reduced to powder by mills, and from thence carried to Holland, where it has acquired the name of Dutch tarraſs. It is very dear, on account of the great demand there is for it in aquatic works. An artificial tarraſs is formed, of two parts of lime and one of plaſter of Paris;

Paris; and another conſiſts of one part of lime and two parts of well-ſifted coal aſhes. Theſe are all uſed occaſionally by the maſon and bricklayer. Stone-maſons meaſure and charge their work either by the ſuperficial or cubic foot: they have extra charges for iron cramps, which faſten two or more ſtones together; for cutting holes in which iron rails are fixed; and for various other things. The journeyman maſon has about 4s. or 4s. 6d. per day, and the labourer from 2s. 6d. per day; but others who work by the piece, or who are employed in carving, or other fine work, will earn double that ſum."

A well-executed plate is prefixed to each chapter, and adds conſiderably to the general merits of this ingenious production.

ART. 23. *The Village Alehouſe, or a Conſideration on the Price of Bread.* 8vo. 6d. Hatchard. 1805.

This ſmall pamphlet is written by ſome ſenſible and judicious perſon, to obviate the popular arguments about the high price of bread. It more particularly attacks, what appears to the writer, the abſurdity and danger of fettering the farmer by any obligation, with reſpect to the mode, time, and place of diſpoſing of his property. If, it is urged, ſmall farmers are compelled to trudge to market every time they ſell their corn, when they ought to be buſily employed at home, the favourable opportunity might be neglected, and the poor have no bread at all. The prevailing opinion alſo reſpecting an artificial ſcarcity, induced by corn merchants buying up the corn, is refuted. The corn merchants are too numerous a body to act in concert; neither will it anſwer their purpoſe to keep corn when there is no real ſcarcity, by which they muſt ultimately be loſers. We recommend the extenſive circulation of this pamphlet, as exceedingly well adapted to anſwer the end propoſed.

ART. 24. *A Reply to the Animadverſions of the Edinburgh Reviewers, on ſome Papers publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. By Thomas Young, M. D. For. Secr. R. S. F. L. S.* 8vo. 38 pp. 1s. Longman and Co. 1804.

Authors and critics are ſo frequently at variance, that the world are led to conſider them as two races of hoſtile and pugnacious animals, in whoſe diſputes it would be very unwiſe to interfere; beſides which, it muſt be confeſſed, that the numbers of the former who, by ſome means or other, obtain from the ſeveral critical tribunals a paſſport to the temple of Fame is ſo conſiderable, that readers in general have more reaſon to ſuſpect us of undue partiality towards many whom we admit, than to blame our ſeverity towards thoſe whoſe claims we find it neceſſary to reject. We have therefore no heſitation in avowing, that we are ſeldom diſpoſed to ſympathize in the feelings of an appellant from the verdict of a reviewer: but, when a writer of reputation, to whoſe works no immoral tendency can be imputed, and who has not conceitedly forced himſelf on public notice, complaints of being unjuſtly cenſured, and ſcandalouſly miſrepreſented, by his ſelf-created judges, we cannot, conſiſtently with our duty, refrain from giving publicity to his proteſt; though we ſhall content ourſelves with ſimply

ply ſtating his caſe, and leave its deciſion to the only tribunal which can ultimately decide on its merits.

Dr. Young thus deſcribes the grounds of his preſent appeal to the public. "I have at various times communicated to the *Royal Society*, in a very abridged form, the reſults of my experiments and inveſtigations, relating to different branches of natural philoſophy; and the *Council* of the *Society*, with a view perhaps of encouraging patient diligence, has honoured my eſſays with a place in their tranſactions. Several of theſe eſſays have been ſingled out, in an unprecedented manner, from the volumes in which they were printed; and have been made the ſubjects, in the ſecond and ninth numbers of the *Edinburgh Review*, not of criticiſm, but of ridicule and invective; of an attack, not only upon my writings and my literary purſuits, but almoſt on my moral character. As far as my reputation in natural philoſophy is concerned, I ſhould conſider a libel of this kind as neither requiring nor deſerving an anſwer; but I cannot help feeling the propriety of endeavouring to defend myſelf from the more pernicious influence of thoſe imputations, which might tend to leſſen the confidence of the public in the profeſſional qualifications of a man, whoſe abilities have been thus contemptuouſly and repeatedly depreciated."

We muſt confeſs, that the manner in which the editors of the journal in queſtion diſclaimed all intention of "gratifying the partiality of friends, or the malignity of enemies", had raiſed ſome ſuſpicion, that it would be marked by the moſt unqualified praiſe, or by the moſt virulent cenſure, of all ſuch productions as might coincide with, or oppoſe, the favourite metaphyſical and political tenets of the critical ſociety; but not at all ſuſpecting that any violent paſſion was capable of being excited by a harmleſs paper on optics, we had overlooked the paſſages of which Dr. Young complains, till our attention was called to them by his tract.

It muſt, however, be admitted, that theſe animadverſions are conveyed in language which, on this ſide of the Tweed, would not be conſidered as juſtifiable by any ſlight provocation. The hypotheſis maintained in Dr. Young's Bakerian Lecture (Phil. Tranſ. 1802, p. 1) is deſcribed as the "unmanly and unfruitful pleaſure of a boyiſh and prurient imagination, or the gratification of a corrupted and depraved appetite". We are told of "the puny ſickly nature of Dr. Young's productions, which have ſcarcely ſtamina ſufficient to ſubſiſt, until their fruitful parent has furniſhed us with a new litter". Dr. Young is repreſented as a man "who has ſyſtematized into a ſort of theory the method of waſting time". It is aſſerted of him, that "he is as little ſcrupulous in his quotations as in his theories; that he delights as much to twiſt an authority as to torture a fact". His attempts to reaſon or argue are "aukward gambols"; and the hypotheſis which he ſupports "a dull invention"—"a clumſy theory"—"a clumſy hypotheſis"—"clumſy imaginations", &c. &c.

To all this we can only ſay, *tantæne animis cœleſtibus iræ?* For it would be mere waſte of time to ſearch after any reaſonable explanation of ſuch a paroxyſm of anger. Sir Iſaac Newton, as we all know, was of opinion, that light was propelled from the ſun, as a projectile, in ſtraight lines; Huygens and Hook (whoſe conjecture is ſupported by

Dr. Young) ſuppoſed it to conſiſt in a tremulous or undulatory motion; and there the matter reſted. Cucumbers have continued to ripen, without waiting for the legal eſtabliſhment of either hypotheſis; and no ſucceeding philoſopher, whether within or without the walls of Bedlam, had imagined that it was neceſſary to eſtabliſh, by the authority of the Royal Society, a Catholic faith on this ſubject. But we muſt ſuppoſe that, as there are perſons who "when the bag pipes ſings i'the noſe, cannot contain their urine", ſo the mention of the word *optics* has the power of irritating to frenzy the nerves of our brother-critics in Edinburgh. This indeed is rendered quite evident by the ſtrictures on Mr. Wood's optics, and by thoſe on Dr. Woollaſton, which are contained in other parts of the ſame journal.

Dr. Young is of opinion, that this *kumatophobia*, or horror of undulations, is not common to the whole fraternity, but confined to one of its members; and alledges various reaſons to prove that he has diſcovered the infected perſon: but this is a queſton upon which it is not our buſineſs to enter, neither can we attempt to abridge the other contents of a pamphlet which is wholly controverſial. We were, however, very happy to learn that Dr. Young is now preparing for the preſs the courſe of lectures which he delivered at the Royal Inſtitution, and which we always thought much better adapted to the cloſet than to recitation before a numerous and very mixed audience. "I think it", ſays he, "juſt to the Inſtitution, to the public, and to myſelf, that the reſult of my labours, throughout the whole extent of natural philoſophy and the mechanical arts, ſhould be rendered of ſome permanent utility; and I have ſince collected ſuch a maſs of further references to works of all ages and of all nations, accompanied by many notes and extracts from them, that it will henceforwards be eaſy for every ſtudent and every author to know at once what has been done, and what remains to be done, in the ſubject of his particular reſearches; and to what books he muſt refer for the beſt information, where further information is required, and can be obtained. Conſidering how widely this information is at preſent ſcattered, I truſt that I ſhall have rendered a ſervice of ſome importance to every department of the ſciences, and I am now on the point of preparing my book for immediate publication."

ART. 25. *Obſervations, chiefly Lithological, made in a Five Week's Tour to the principal Lakes in Weſtmoreland and Cumberland.* 8vo. 88 pp. 3s. T. Oſtell. 1804.

This anonymous pamphlet is divided into nine Chapters, to which a ſhort Preface is prefixed. The contents of the chapters are, I. Journey from London to Carliſle, and from thence to Keſwick. II. Senſations produced on a ſtranger's arrival for the firſt time in a mountainous country. III. Mr. Croſthwaite's Muſeum. IV. Mr. Hutton's Muſeum. V. A few thoughts on Jade. VI. Departure from Keſwick to Penrith. VII. Curſory obſervations on Granite, to which are ſubjoined a few remarks on Lakes. VIII. Excurſions from Penrith, by

Ulls Water, to Ambleſide and Kendal, and return to Penrith. IX. Departure from Penrith to London.

This author modeſtly calls his preſent performance, *a faint and feeble ſketch or outline*; and in this reſpect we do not think it neceſſary or proper to contradict him.

SUPPLEMENTAL ARTICLES.

ART. 25. *In Addition to* ART. II. *of the preſent Number, p.* 16.

Since we cloſed the article above-mentioned, we have obtained a copy of Cowper's Epigram, with the judicious alterations to which we there alluded. It is propoſed to read it thus:

" Tres tria, ſed longè diſtantia ſæcula, vates
Oſtentant, tribus è gentibus, eximios.
Græcia ſublimem, cum majeſtate *venuſtum*
Roma *dat*, *ambobus terra Britanna* parem.
Nil ultra potuit Natura; coacta *priores*,
Tertius ut fieret, conſociare duos."

On the Epigram, thus altered, we remark that *venuſtum* is more characteriſtic than *diſertum*; and that *ambobus*, for *utrique*, ſeems a neceſſary alteration, as Milton was intended to be made equal to both together, not to either ſeparately. *Partubus ex binis Natura exhauſta* introduces an idea not warranted by the original, nor in fact quite congruous. The ſenſe is much better expreſſed by *Nil ultrà potuit Natura*; and *priores duos* is much more diſtinct and proper than merely *duos*. With theſe changes, which, we doubt not, Cowper would himſelf have approved, the verſion will not eaſily be rivalled by any tranſlation of an Engliſh epigram into Latin.

ART. 26. *In Addition to* ART. II. *of the Britiſh Critic, for September*, 1804.

On Ritſon's Metrical Romances.

The following particulars have been furniſhed lately, by a friend of the worthy and venerable Biſhop of Dromore. They open a part of the ſubject which could not have offered itſelf to us, without a more exact compariſon of Ritſon's Introduction with the Eſſays in the Reliques, than we thought it neceſſary to make; and from the ſame cauſe we find that we ſuppoſed R. to quote Mr. Ellis in one inſtance, in which he really cited from Dr. Percy. Our correſpondent, however, writes thus:

" Mr.

"Mr. Ritſon has diſgraced his pages by the moſt illiberal abuſe of the editor of the "Reliques", &c. and by vile inſinuations againſt his veracity. Yet theſe I think every reader of diſcernment will find ſelf-confuted. For, when he ſays in his note, p. 107, that Mr. Steevens had aſſured him, that the Biſhop of Dromore's nephew had never ſeen one word of the Advertiſement prefixed to the laſt edition, to which his name is ſubſcribed, he muſt ſuppoſe the ſubſcriber, not to have the curioſity of the moſt common or illiterate reader. This falſehood therefore confutes itſelf.

"So again, in page 142, he would excite ſuſpicion from Mr. Tyrwhitt's not having ſeen the old MS. although that is fully accounted for in the Advertiſement above-mentioned; and he further adds, "nor would the late excellent George Steevens, on the Biſhop's perſonal application, conſent to ſanction the authenticity of the printed copy" (ſelection of the Reliques) "with his ſignature". Now the reader may be aſſured, that while the laſt edition was preparing, the old MS. in queſtion was left for near a year, with Mr. Nichols, the printer; and all the original editor's friends and acquaintance were invited to inſpect it. Among theſe, Mr. Steevens, calling one morning, ſpent an hour or two in examining the MS. and minutely collated one of thoſe pieces, extracted from it, which are declared to be printed verbatim from the original. With the exactneſs of this he profeſſed himſelf ſo well ſatisfied, that he allowed his name to be appealed to among thoſe of the other gentlemen mentioned in the Advertiſement. Now from this ſhort inſpection, it was impoſſible that he could be deſired to "ſanction with his ſignature" the printed copy of the work in general, as this baſe and malicious detractor would inſinuate.

"It is ſufficient to mention theſe ſtrong inſtances, to put the reader on his guard againſt the other falſe inſinuations and defamatory aſſertions ſcattered through every part of the work above-mentioned: which, as Ritſon derived all he knew on the ſubject originally from the Biſhop, and had never received the leaſt provocation from him, can only be accounted for from his avowed hatred of all *Prieſts* and *Prieſt craft* (for ſo he ſtiled Religion and its Miniſters) which he carried to ſuch an horrible exceſs, that he was engaged in an attempt to prove our bleſſed Saviour an impoſtor, when a dreadful paroxyſm of frenzy put an end to his exiſtence.

"It may be added, that his whole introduction and many of his notes are filled with petty cavils, and contradictions without proof, of every thing advanced in the Biſhop's ſeveral eſſays; as any reader will be convinced who ſhall take the trouble to compare them."

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We can aſſure *Mr. Bulman*, that he is totally miſtaken in all his conjectures. The account of his Sermon was written in a ſituation very remote from him, and all his connections, and without bias from any thing except its actual contents. With the opinion given by other publications, we have no manner of concern.

We are obliged to *a Country Curate* for his favourable ſentiments, as well as for the ſuggeſtions in the cloſe of his Letter, to which due attention ſhall be paid. We will take care that a copy of the paper he deſires ſhall be left for him with our publiſhers, Meſſrs. Rivington.

The requeſt of *T. W.* ſhall be complied with, as far as we can make it conſiſtent with our other engagements.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Mr. Todd's edition of *Spenſer* is now ſo nearly completed, that it will be publiſhed in a few weeks.

We learn, with pleaſure, that *Dr. Crotch* has been perſuaded to publiſh the *Lectures*, which he delivered at the Royal Inſtitution, with the muſical examples at large.

Mrs. Weſt is employed upon a new work, on the characteriſtic duties of women, to be entitled *Letters to a young Lady.*

Meſſrs. A. and *C. R. Aikin* are preparing *a Dictionary of Chemiſtry and Mineralogy*, with their application to Arts and Manufactures. It is now in the preſs, and will extend to two volumes, in quarto.

The *Rev. Mr. Middleton* is about to print *an Inquiry into the Nature of the Greek definitive Article*, with illuſtrative notes.

The *Rev. H. F. Cary* is printing *an edition of Dante*, with a tranſlation in blank verſe, notes, and a new life of the author. The firſt volume will contain the firſt ſeventeen Cantos of the *Inferno*.

We underſtand, that the *Britiſh and Foreign Bible Society* are endeavouring to collect copies of the Holy Scriptures in all foreign languages, and have received a very noble donation of that kind, in purſuance of their plan.

ERRATA.

In p. 543, l. 12, of this volume, for *April* read *Auguſt*.

In p. 649, in the title of *Mr. Abernethy's* book, for *Operations* read *Obſervations*.